




UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE
National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
NATIONAL MARINE FISHERIES SERVICE

Southwest Region
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DEC 17 2003

MEMORANDUM FOR: CDFG Research Permit Program 2002-2004 File

FROM: Rodney R. McInnis 
Acting Regional Administrator

SUBJECT: Biological opinion on approval of Year 2002-2004 California
Department of Fish and Game Research Program, including Scientific
Collector Permit-holder projects, under the July 2000 4(d) Rule
Research Limit.

The National Marine Fisheries Service (NOAA Fisheries) proposes to limit Endangered Species Act (ESA) of 1973, as amended, take prohibitions, under the authority of section 4(d) of the ESA, for juvenile and adult Southern Oregon/Northern California Coast and Central California Coast coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*), California Coastal and Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon (*O. tshawytscha*), Northern California, Central California Coast, South-Central California Coast, and Central Valley steelhead (*O. mykiss*) related to 78 scientific research and monitoring projects in California. This authorization would be in effect through December 31, 2004 (unless it is modified, suspended or revoked sooner), and would be subject to the limitations of the ESA and the regulations in 50 CFR parts 222, 223, and 224.

The attached opinion analyzes our proposed approval of the research program submitted by the California Department of Fish and Game (CDFG). NOAA Fisheries anticipates that the Research Program would provide valuable information for the conservation of listed species. Based on our evaluation of the Research Program, none of the projects, singly or in combination, are likely to jeopardize the continued existence of threatened anadromous salmonids in California.



BIOLOGICAL OPINION

AGENCY: National Marine Fisheries Service

ACTION: Limit ESA take prohibitions, under the authority of section 4(d) of the ESA, for juvenile and adult coho, Chinook, and steelhead in eight **Evolutionarily** Significant Units related to 78 scientific research and monitoring projects in California

CONSULTATION

CONDUCTED BY: National Marine Fisheries Service, Southwest Region

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I. CONSULTATION HISTORY

There are eight Evolutionarily Significant Units¹ (ESU) of threatened **anadromous** salmonids in California covered in this biological opinion (Figure 1; Table 1 attached). The National Marine Fisheries Service (NOAA Fisheries) has established protective regulations for these eight ESUs through promulgation of three separate Endangered Species Act of 1973 (ESA), as amended (16 U.S.C. 1538(a)(1)), section 4(d) rules (62 Federal Register (FR) 38479, 65 FR 42422, and 67 FR 1116). All of the protective regulations for these ESUs have limits to the take prohibitions for research and monitoring activities. The research limits provide that the prohibitions of section 9(a)(1) of the ESA do not apply to scientific research and monitoring activities submitted by a state fishery agency that meet the criteria specified in the limit.

On June 13, 2002, June 25, 2002, and May 16, 2003, the California Department of Fish and Game (CDFG) submitted requests for limits to take prohibition for threatened **anadromous salmonids** in California. The requests described **projects** to be conducted by CDFG employees and recipients of CDFG scientific collector permits; collectively these projects are called the Program. NOAA Fisheries collaborated with CDFG on numerous occasions to obtain clarification on the applications submitted. NOAA Fisheries also contacted all 78 applicants and requested clarification of their projects regarding specifics such as sampling location, timing, and amount of take estimated. This biological opinion is based on information contained in the 78 applications submitted by CDFG, e-mail messages, and telephone conversations with the

¹For purposes of conservation under the Endangered Species Act, an Evolutionarily Significant Unit (ESU) is a distinct population segment that is substantially **reproductively** isolated from other **conspecific** population units and represents an important component in the evolutionary legacy of the species (Waples 1991).

applicants. A complete administrative record of this consultation is on file at the NOAA Fisheries Santa Rosa Office.

NOAA Fisheries has determined that the CDFG Program meets the criteria found in the research limits and will act to conserve the affected listed species. NOAA Fisheries' review of that Program is set out in the December 3, 2003, document titled "Determination for California Department of Fish and Game request for take prohibition limit for research and monitoring activities - 2003 and 2004."

II. DESCRIPTION OF THE PROPOSED ACTION

NOAA Fisheries proposes to limit ESA take prohibitions, under the authority of section 4(d) of the ESA, for juvenile and adult Southern Oregon/Northern California Coast (SONCC) and Central California Coast (CCC) coho salmon (*Oncorhynchus kisutch*), California Coastal (CC) and Central Valley spring-run (CVSR) Chinook salmon (*O. tshawytscha*), Northern California (NC), Central California Coast (CCC), South-Central California Coast (SCCC), and Central Valley (CV) steelhead (*O. mykiss*) related to 78 scientific research and monitoring projects in California. This authorization would be in effect through December 31, 2004 (unless it is modified, suspended or revoked sooner), and would be subject to the limitations of the ESA and the regulations in 50 CFR parts 222, 223, and 224.

While some of the projects discussed in this opinion are located within the Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon ESU, the projects either will not affect this endangered species or are already permitted through section 7 or section 10(a)(1)(A) of the ESA. Therefore, the Program effects on the Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon ESU are not considered in this consultation.

A. Research and Monitoring Program Description

The CDFG has submitted a request for authorization to operate the Program under the limits to take prohibition for threatened anadromous salmonids in California. The Program contains 78 projects throughout California: 40 conducted by CDFG researchers and 38 conducted by researchers with a CDFG scientific collectors permit. The projects may affect eight threatened salmon and steelhead ESUs in California (Table 1, attached). NOAA Fisheries will require detailed annual reports from the CDFG that document research or **monitoring-related** take under this authorization and forecasting activities and the take anticipated for the following year.

The Program encompasses a diverse set of research objectives, including: (1) determining the abundance, distribution, and condition of adult and juvenile fish; (2) surveying spawning and rearing of adult and juvenile listed and unlisted fish; (3) conducting genetic studies using tissue and scale samples; (4) investigating migration timing; (5) studying **estuarine** ecology; (6) classifying and monitoring habitats; (7) determining habitat use by adult and juvenile fish; (8)

prioritizing inventoried streams for restoration work and assessing effectiveness of restoration efforts; (9) evaluating effect of contaminated water on fish species; (10) examining salmonids for the presence of pathogens; (11) evaluating fish **entrainment**, survival, and movement through dams; (12) developing population models of listed fish; (13) demonstrating field equipment and techniques to study fish; and (14) examining size of various age classes of fish and growth rate. Many of these research projects focus on monitoring and evaluating management actions and tasks that are recommended for the conservation of listed salmonid populations.

B. Description of the Action Area

The action area includes (1) all coastal streams from the **Oregon/California** border, south to, but not including, the Santa Maria River (San Luis Obispo County, California), and (2) all the streams of the Sacramento-San Joaquin River Basin of the Central Valley of California. (See Table 1 for information on the ESUs in the action area).

C. Requested amount of Take

The total amount of annual take requested by CDFG of listed juvenile and adult salmonids from each ESU for the Program is summarized in Table 2 below. The amount of annual take of listed juvenile and adult salmonids requested for each ESU for each project in the Program is listed in Table 3 (attached).

Table 2.
Estimated take of adult and juvenile fish for eight Evolutionarily Significant Units resulting from 78 projects in CDFG's Research Program.

Evolutionarily Significant Unit	Adult			Juvenile			Total take	% Adult take	% Juvenile take
	Non-lethal	Lethal	% Lethal take	Non-lethal	Lethal	% Lethal take			
So. Oregon/No. California Coasts coho salmon	800	15	1.8	203,118	688	0.3	204,621	0.4	99.6
Central California Coast coho salmon	0	0	0.0	24,550	234	0.9	24,784	0.0	100.0
California Coastal Chinook salmon	500	10	2.0	191,590	1,690	0.9	193,790	0.3	99.7
Northern California steelhead	280	10	3.4	346,304	4,968	1.4	351,562	0.1	99.9
Central California Coast steelhead	75	0	0.0	37,404	765	2.0	38,244	0.2	99.8
South Central California Coast steelhead	0	0	0.0	8,275	60	0.7	8,335	0.0	100.0
Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon	24,830	59	0.2	787,036	14,261	1.8	826,186	3.0	97.0
Central Valley steelhead	6,475	134	2.1	38,170	2,020	5.3	46,799	14.1	85.9

D. Measures to Reduce the Impacts of the Program

To minimize the effect of take on listed salmonids during the activities of the Program, NOAA Fisheries has reviewed each application to ensure that the amount of take proposed by individual projects, groups of projects within watershed, or the Program as a whole is commensurate with the status of the sub-population of salmon and steelhead affected by the Program. The CDFG has indicated that all scientific research and monitoring projects will be conducted by their own staff or by researchers who will be overseen by or coordinated with the CDFG. Each researcher under the Program must comply with NOAA Fisheries' conditions and requirements to insure responsible treatment and handling of listed species and to minimize take and the effects of take

on the species. Researchers will insure that all persons operating under the Program will be properly trained and have access to properly maintained state-of-the-art equipment. Researchers must use unintentional lethal takes (indirect mortalities) when conducting their research unless they have requested intentional lethal take (direct sacrifice) and have approval for this in their projects. Researchers are required to coordinate with other co-managers and researchers to ensure that no unnecessary duplication or adverse cumulative effects to **ESA-listed** species occur as a result of **his/her** activities.

The CDFG has indicated that **electrofishing** activities will be conducted according to the NOAA Fisheries Electrofishing Guidelines published in June 2000. The CDFG has provided assurances that research activities undertaken by CDFG will obtain and comply with conditions specified in applicable Federal, State, tribal, and local licenses, permits, and authorizations necessary for the conduct of activities provided for in this authorization.

Finally, NOAA Fisheries will monitor actual annual takes of listed fish species associated with the Program (as provided to NOAA Fisheries in annual reports) and shall adjust annual permitted take levels if they are deemed to be excessive or if cumulative take levels are determined to operate to the disadvantage of the listed species.

III. DESCRIPTION AND STATUS OF THE SPECIES AND CRITICAL HABITAT

The proposed action may affect the following listed species. More detailed information related to the listing status, critical habitat, protective regulations, and biological information for the **ESA-listed** species addressed in this opinion are found in Table 1.

Coho Salmon

SONCC coho salmon ESU, listed as threatened on May 6, 1997 (62 FR 24588)

CCC coho salmon ESU, listed as threatened under the ESA on October 31, 1996 (61 FR 56138)

Chinook Salmon

CC Chinook salmon ESU, listed as threatened under the ESA on September 16, 1999 (64 FR 50394)

CVSR Chinook salmon, listed as threatened under the ESA on September 16, 1999 (64 FR 50394)

Steelhead

NC steelhead ESU, listed as threatened under the ESA on June 7, 2000 (65 FR 36074)

CCC steelhead, listed as threatened under the ESA on August 18, 1997 (62 FR 43937)

SCCC steelhead, listed as threatened under the ESA on August 18, 1997 (62 FR 43937)

CV steelhead, listed as threatened under the ESA on March 19, 1998 (63 FR 13347)

The Program activities NOAA Fisheries considers in this biological opinion do not result in any changes or effects to salmonid habitat. Therefore, critical habitat is not likely to be adversely affected by NOAA Fisheries' authorization of the Program, and is not considered further in this opinion.

A. Coho Salmon

1. Life History and Biological Requirements

Coho salmon are typically associated with small to moderately-sized coastal streams characterized by heavily forested watersheds; perennially-flowing reaches of cool, high-quality water; dense riparian canopy; deep pools with abundant overhead cover; **instream** cover consisting of large, stable woody debris and undercut banks; and gravel or cobble substrates.

The life history of the coho salmon in California has been well documented by Shapovalov and **Taft (1954)** and Hassler (1987). In contrast to the life history patterns of other anadromous salmonids, coho salmon in California generally exhibit a relatively simple 3-year life cycle (Shapovalov and Tatt 1954, Hassler 1987). Adult salmon typically begin the freshwater migration from the ocean to their natal streams after heavy late-fall or winter rains breach the sand bars at the mouths of coastal streams (**Sandercock** 1991). Delays in river entry of over a month are not unusual (**Salo** and Bayliff 1958, **Eames et al.** 1981). Migration continues until March, generally peaking in December and January, with spawning occurring shortly after returning to the spawning ground (Shapovalov and **Taft** 1954).

Female coho salmon choose spawning sites usually near the head of a riffle, just below a pool, where water changes from a laminar to a turbulent flow and there is small to medium gravel substrate. The flow characteristics of the location of the redd usually insure good aeration of eggs and embryos, and flushing of waste products. The water circulation in these areas also facilitates fry emergence from the gravel. Preferred spawning grounds have nearby overhead and submerged cover for holding adults; water depth of 10-54 cm; water velocities of 20-80 cm/s; clean, loosely compacted gravel (1.3-12.7 cm diameter) with less than 20 percent fine silt or sand content; cool water (**4-10°C**) with high dissolved oxygen (**8 mg/l**); and an **intergravel** flow sufficient to aerate the eggs. The lack of suitable gravel often limits successful spawning in many streams.

Each female builds a series of redds in the gravel, moving upstream as she does so, and deposits a few hundred eggs in each. Fecundity of coho salmon is directly proportional to female size; coho salmon may produce from 1,000-7,600 eggs (reviewed in **Sandercock** 1991). **Briggs** (1953) noted a dominant male accompanies a female during spawning, but one or more subordinate

males also may engage in spawning. Coho salmon may spawn in more than one redd and with more than one partner (Sandercock 1991). Coho salmon are *semelparous*, they spawn once and then die. The female may guard a nest for up to two weeks (Briggs 1953).

The eggs generally hatch between 4 to 8 weeks later, depending on water temperature. Survival and development rates depend on temperature and dissolved oxygen levels within the redd. According to Baker and Reynolds (1986), under optimum conditions, mortality during this period can be as low as 10 percent; under adverse conditions of high scouring flows or heavy siltation, mortality may be close to 100 percent. McMahon (1983) found that egg and fry survival drops sharply when fines make up 15 percent or more of the substrate. The newly-hatched fry remain in the gravel from two to seven weeks until emergence from the gravels (Shapovalov and Taft 1954). Upon emergence, fry seek out shallow water, usually along stream margins. As they grow, they often occupy habitat at the heads of pools, which generally provide an optimum mix of high food availability and good cover with low swimming cost (Nielsen 1992). Chapman and Bjornn (1969) determined that larger parr tend to occupy the head of pools, with smaller parr found further down the pools. As the fish continue to grow, they move into deeper water and expand their territories until, by July and August, they are in the deep pools. Juvenile coho salmon prefer well shaded pools at least one meter deep with dense overhead cover; abundant submerged cover composed of undercut banks, logs, roots, and other woody debris; preferred water temperatures of 12-15°C (Brett 1952, Reiser and Bjornn 1979), but not exceeding 22-25°C (Brungs and Jones 1977) for extended time periods; dissolved oxygen levels of 4-9 mg/l; and water velocities of 9-24 cm/s in pools and 31-46 cm/s in riffles. Water temperatures for good survival and growth of juvenile coho salmon range from 10-15°C (Bell 1973, McMahon 1983). Growth is slowed considerably at 18°C and ceases at 20°C (Stein *et al.* 1972, Bell 1973).

Preferred rearing habitat has little or no turbidity and high sustained invertebrate forage production. Juvenile coho salmon feed primarily on drifting terrestrial insects, much of which are produced in the riparian canopy, and on aquatic invertebrates growing in the interstices of the substrate and in the leaf litter in the pools. As water temperatures decrease in the fall and winter months, fish stop or reduce feeding due to lack of food or in response to the colder water, and growth rates slow down. During December-February, winter rains result in increased stream flows and by March, following peak flows, fish again feed heavily on insects and crustaceans and grow rapidly.

In the spring juvenile coho salmon, as yearlings, undergo a physiological process known as **smoltification**, which prepares them for living in the marine environment. They begin to migrate downstream to the ocean during late March and early April, and **outmigration** usually peaks in mid-May, if conditions are favorable. At this point, the smolts are about 10-13 cm in length. After entering the ocean, the immature salmon initially remain in **nearshore** waters close to their parent stream. They gradually move northward, staying over the continental shelf (Brown *et al.* 1994). Although they can range widely in the North Pacific, movements of coho salmon from California are not well known.

2. Status of Stocks

a. *SONCC Coho Salmon*

Information regarding the status of coho salmon in the SONCC ESU was obtained from an analysis of relatively recent (1987-1991) occurrence of coho salmon in streams historically known to support coho populations (Brown *et al.* 1994). Of 115 historical streams in the SONCC ESU for which recent data were available, 73 (63 percent) were determined to still support coho salmon, whereas it was believed they had been lost from 42 (37 percent). Schiewe (1996a) presented more recent data (1995-1996) on presence of coho salmon within the SONCC ESU, which suggested that the percentage of streams still supporting coho salmon was lower than estimated by Brown *et al.* (1994). Of 176 streams recently surveyed in the SONCC ESU, 92 (52 percent) were found to still support coho salmon (P. Adams, NMFS Southwest Fisheries Science Center, personal communication cited in Schiewe 1996a). The percentage of streams still supporting coho salmon was lower (46 percent) in Del Norte County than in Humboldt County (55 percent). It was unclear whether the apparent reduction in percentage of streams occupied by coho salmon was a function of trends in local extinctions or an artifact of sampling error.

Two recent reviews assessing the status of coho salmon stocks in California were also reviewed by the NOAA Fisheries Biological Review Team (BRT). Nehlsen *et al.* (1991) identified coastal populations of coho salmon north of San Francisco Bay (includes portions of the SONCC and CCC ESU's) as being at moderate risk of extinction and Klamath River coho salmon stock of special concern. The Humboldt Chapter of the American Fisheries Society (Higgins *et al.* 1992), utilizing more detailed information on individual river basins, considered three stocks of coho salmon in the SONCC ESU as at high risk of extinction (Scott River [Klamath], Mad River, and Mattole River), and eight more stocks as of special concern (Wilson Creek, Lower Klamath River, Trinity River, Redwood Creek, Little River, Humboldt Bay tributaries, Eel River, and Bear River). In the 1995 status review, the BRT was unanimous in concluding that coho salmon in the SONCC ESU were not in danger of extinction but were likely to become so in the foreseeable future if present trends continued (Weitkamp *et al.* 1995). Including only streams listed in Brown and Moyle (1991), CDFG (2002) found that coho salmon were observed in 143 of 235 (61 percent) streams surveyed during the period covering brood years 1986-1991. This number is similar to the value of 63 percent found by Brown and Moyle (1991) based on information on about half as many streams (115). For brood years 1995-2000, surveys were conducted on 355 of the 392 historical coho salmon streams. Of these, coho salmon were detected in 179 (50 percent), suggesting a decline in occupancy. However, when the analysis was restricted to only the 223 streams for which data were available from both time periods, the percent of streams in which coho were detected went from 62 percent in 1986-1991 to 57 percent in 1995-2000, a change that was not statistically significant (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

For the 2001 field survey, presence was confirmed in only 121 (42 percent) of the 287 streams surveyed within the SONCC ESU. CDFG (2002) makes two cautions in interpreting their year

2001 results. First, CDFG considered sampling intensity to be sufficient to have a high likelihood of detecting fish for only 110 of the 166 streams where coho salmon were not found. Second, they note that absence of fish in a single year class does not mean that fish have been extirpated from the system.

Scientists at the NOAA Fisheries Southwest Fisheries Science Center compiled a presence-absence database for the SONCC ESU comparable to that developed by CDFG. This dataset is a composite of information contained in the NOAA Fisheries (2001 a) status review update, additional information gathered by NOAA Fisheries since the 2001 status review was published, and data used in the CDFG (2002) analysis. When data were aggregated over complete brood cycles (3-year periods), the percentage of streams for which coho salmon presence was detected remained relatively constant (between 60 percent and 67 percent) between the 1987-1989 and 1996-1998 brood cycles. Percent occupancy for the 1999-2001 brood cycle was lower at 46 percent; however, interpretation of this apparent decline is complicated by two factors. First, the number of streams surveyed was higher than in any other period due to CDFG's intensive survey of the streams listed in Brown and Moyle (1991) in the summer of 2001, a drought year. Second, reporting from the 2002 summer season (brood year 2001) remains incomplete, and as noted above, preliminary data indicate that the 2001 brood year was strong. Thus, it is likely that the percent occupancy for this period will increase after all data from CDFG's 2002 survey and other sources are analyzed. When analysis was restricted to streams on the Brown and Moyle (1991) list, the ESU-wide pattern was almost identical, with percent occupancy values being within 1 percent-2 percent for all time period. Overall, it appears that there has been no dramatic change in the percent of coho salmon streams occupied from the late 1980s and early 1990s to the present.

In general, the number of streams sampled within any individual watershed (or grouping of watersheds) was sufficiently small or variable among time periods to make interpretation of local patterns difficult. However, there are a few noteworthy results for watersheds where sampling frequency is higher. Most notable was coho salmon occurrence within the Eel River basin, which appears to have declined from between 48 percent and 58 percent in the period between 1987 and 1995 to about 30 percent in the past two brood cycles. Similarly, the percentage of streams with coho salmon presence in the **Klamath-Trinity** system appears to have declined over the five brood cycles examined, though the magnitude of the decrease is smaller. In both these cases, anecdotal reports suggest that inclusion of more data from the 2002 sampling year may increase the observed percentages because of the relatively strong adult returns in the winter of 2001-2002. Still, the relatively low percentage of streams that still support coho salmon in the Eel River and the possible downward trend in the Klamath River basin, despite continued heavy hatchery influence, are cause for concern given that these are the largest river basins in the California portion of the SONCC.

None of the new data available contradict conclusions reached previously by the BRT. Nor do any of recent data (1995 to present) suggest any marked change, either positive or negative, in the abundance or distribution of coho salmon within the SONCC ESU.

b. CCC Coho Salmon

Wild and naturalized coho salmon populations were estimated using the “20-fishrule” (see status review update for Southern **OR-Northern** CA Coast coho salmon for details) by Brown *et al.* (1994) at 6,160 (47 percent of the statewide total) for the CCC ESU during the late 1980s. All of these estimates are considered to be “best guesses” based on a combination of limited catch statistics, hatchery records, and personal observations of local biologists (Brown *et al.* 1994). Further information regarding status was obtained from Brown *et al.*’s (1994) analysis of recent (1987-1991) occurrence of coho salmon in streams historically known to support populations. Of 133 historical coho salmon streams in the CCC ESU for which recent data were available, 62 (47 percent) were determined to still support coho runs while 71 (53 percent) apparently no longer support coho salmon. A subsequent analysis of surveys from 1995-1996 found a somewhat higher (57 percent) percentage of occupied streams (Schiewe 1996a, based on personal communication with P. Adams, NOAA Fisheries Southwest Fisheries Science Center).

CDFG (2002) analyzed presence-absence information in the CCC ESU. Analysis focused on results from CDFG’s 2001 summer juvenile sampling effort in which 135 of 173 streams identified by Brown and Moyle (1991) as historical coho salmon streams within the CCC ESU were sampled. For the CCC ESU as a whole, CDFG (2002) estimated that coho salmon were present in 42 percent of streams historically known to contain coho salmon. Estimated occupancy was highest in Mendocino County (62 percent), followed by **Marin** County (40 percent), Sonoma County (4 percent), and San Francisco Bay tributaries (0 percent). Although the numbers are not directly comparable with those derived by Brown *et al.* (1994), because the specific streams and methods used differ between the two studies, the general regional and overall ESU patterns are similar. The apparent decrease in percent presence in Marin County is likely a function of the increase in number of streams surveyed by CDFG rather than actual extirpations of populations.

Scientists at NOAA Fisheries Southwest Fisheries Science Center recently compiled survey information from streams with historical or recent evidence of coho salmon presence within the CCC ESU. Data were provided primarily by the CDFG, private landowners, consultants, academic researchers, and others who have conducted sampling within the CCC during the years 1988 to 2002. The estimated percentage of streams in which coho salmon were detected shows a general downward trend from 1987 to 2000, followed by a substantial increase in 2001. Several caveats, however, warrant discussion. First, the number of streams surveyed per year also shows a general increase from 1987 to 2000; thus, there may be a confounding influence of sampling size if sites surveyed in the first half of the time period are skewed disproportionately toward observations in streams where presence was more likely. Second, sample size from brood year 2001 was relatively small and the data were weighted heavily toward certain geographic areas (Mendocino County and systems south of the Russian River). The data for brood year 2001 included almost no observations from watersheds from the **Navarro** River to the Russian River, or tributaries to San Francisco Bay, areas where coho salmon have been scarce or absent in recent years. Thus, while 2001 appears to have been a relatively strong year for coho salmon in

the CCC as a whole, the high percentage of streams where presence was detected is likely inflated.

Two other patterns were noteworthy. First, compared with percent presence values for the SONCC ESU, values in the CCC were more highly variable and showed a somewhat more cyclical pattern. In general, percent occupancy was relatively low in brood years 1990, 1993, 1996, and 1999, suggesting that this brood lineage is in the poorest condition. In contrast, during the 1990s, percent occupancy tended to be high in brood years 1992, 1995, 1998, and 2001, suggesting that this is the strongest brood lineage of the three. Second, there is a general tendency for percent occupancy to be slightly higher (2 percent-15 percent) for the streams listed in Brown and Moyle (1991) compared with the ESU as a whole, indicating that the streams in Brown and Moyle (1991) do not constitute a random subset of CCC streams.

When data are aggregated over brood cycles (3-year periods), the percentage of streams with coho salmon detected shows a similar downward trend, from 73 percent in 1987-1989, to 63 percent in 1990-1992, to less than 50 percent in the last three brood cycles. Again there are confounding influences of increased sampling fraction through time and incomplete reporting for the 2001 brood year. Nevertheless, it appears that the percent of historical streams occupied continued to decline from the late 1980s to the mid-1990s and remains below 50 percent for the ESU as a whole. Additionally, coho salmon appear to be extinct or **nearing** extinction in several geographic areas including the Garcia River, the Gualala River, the Russian River, and San Francisco Bay tributaries. There is also evidence that some populations that still persist in the southern portion of the range, including Waddell and Gazos creeks, have lost one or more brood lineages (Smith 2001).

Results from the BRT presence-absence analysis are generally concordant with CDFG's analysis. The two studies show consistent regional patterns suggesting that within the CCC ESU the proportion of streams occupied is highest in Mendocino County, but that populations in streams in the southern portion of the range (excluding portions of Marin County) have suffered substantial reductions in range. NOAA Fisheries' analysis is more suggestive of a continued decline in percent occupancy from the late 1980s to the present; however, increased sampling in recent years may be confounding any trends.

Coho salmon populations continue to be depressed relative to historical numbers. After considering new information on coho salmon presence within the ESU, the majority of the BRT concluded that the ESU was in danger of extinction, while a minority concluded the ESU was not presently in danger of extinction but was likely to become so in the foreseeable future (Schiewe 1996a).

B. Chinook Salmon

1. Life History and Biological Requirements

Chinook salmon are anadromous and the largest member of *Oncorhynchus*, with adults weighing more than 120 pounds having been reported from North American waters (Scott and Crossman 1973, Eschmeyer *et al.* 1983, Page and Burr 1991). Chinook salmon exhibit two main life history strategies: ocean-type fish and river-type fish (Healey 1991). Ocean-type fish typically are fall- or winter-run fish that typically enter freshwater at an advanced stage of maturity, move rapidly to their spawning areas on the mainstem or lower tributaries of rivers, spawn within a few weeks of freshwater entry and have offspring that emigrate shortly after emergence from the redd (Healey 1991). River-type fish are typically spring- or summer-run fish that have a protracted adult freshwater residency, sometimes spawning several months after entering freshwater. Progeny of river-type fish frequently spend one or more years in freshwater before emigrating.

Chinook salmon generally remain in the ocean for two to five years (Healey 1991), and tend to stay along the California and Oregon coasts (NOAA Fisheries 1997a). Some Chinook salmon return from the ocean to spawn one or more years before becoming full-sized adults, and are referred to as jacks (males) and jills (females). Adult fall run CC Chinook salmon typically migrate to coastal streams in northern California from the Russian River to the Klamath River between August and November and spawn shortly thereafter (Myers *et al.* 1998, Fukushima and Lesh 1998). CVSR Chinook salmon typically migrate to the Sacramento River from March to July, and spawn late August to October in the upper reaches of the Sacramento River and principle tributaries.

Egg deposition must be timed to insure that fry emerge during the following spring at a time when the river or estuary productivity is sufficient for juvenile survival and growth. Adult female Chinook salmon prepare redds in stream areas with suitable gravel composition, water depth, and velocity. Spawning generally occurs in swift, relatively shallow riffles or along the edges of fast runs at depths greater than 24 cm. Optimal spawning temperatures range between 5.6-13.9°C. Redds vary widely in size and location within the river. Preferred spawning substrate is clean, loose gravel, mostly sized between 1.3-10.2 cm (Allen and Hassler 1986). Embryo survival is strongly correlated with the proportion of substrates in the range of 0.85 mm to 9.50 mm. Survival decreases significantly as the percent of 0.85 mm material increases beyond 10 percent and as 9.50 mm material increases beyond 25 percent (Tappel and Bjornn 1983). Reiser and White (1988) indicated dramatic decreases in survival with fines (<0.84 mm) greater than 10 percent. Geometric mean particle size diameters of 8 mm to 15 mm also result in a marked reduction in survival of Chinook embryos (Shirazi and Seim 1979, Tappel and Bjornn 1983). Minimum intragravel percolation rate depends on flow rate, water depth, and water quality. The percolation rate must be adequate to maintain oxygen delivery to the eggs and remove metabolic wastes. The Chinook salmon's need for a strong, constant level of subsurface flow may indicate that suitable spawning habitat is more limited in most rivers than superficial

observation would suggest. After depositing eggs in a redd, adult Chinook salmon guard the redd from 4 to 25 days before dying.

Chinook salmon eggs incubate for 90 to **150** days, depending on water temperature. Successful incubation depends on several factors including dissolved oxygen levels, temperature, substrate size, amount of fine sediment, and water velocity. Maximum survival of incubating eggs and pre-emergent fry occurs at water temperatures between 5.6-13.3°C with a preferred temperature of 11.1°C. Fry emergence begins in December and continues into **mid-April** (Leidy and Leidy 1984). Emergence can be hindered if the interstitial spaces in the redd are not large enough to permit passage of the fry. In laboratory studies, Bjornn and Reiser (1991) observed that Chinook salmon and steelhead fry had difficulty emerging from gravel when fine sediments (6.4 mm or less) exceeded 30-40 percent by volume.

After emergence, Chinook salmon fry seek out areas behind fallen trees, back eddies, undercut banks and other areas of bank cover (Everest and Chapman 1972). As they grow larger, their habitat preferences change. Juveniles move away from stream margins and begin to use deeper water areas with slightly faster water velocities, but continue to use available cover to minimize the risk of predation and reduce energy expenditure. Fish size appears to be positively correlated with water velocity and depth (Chapman and Bjornn 1969, Everest and Chapman 1972). Optimal temperatures for both Chinook salmon fry and fingerlings range from 12-14°C, with maximum growth rates at 12.8°C (Boles 1988). Chinook feed on small terrestrial and aquatic insects and aquatic crustaceans. Cover, in the form of rocks, submerged aquatic vegetation, logs, riparian vegetation, and undercut banks provide food, shade, and protect juveniles from predation.

The low flows, high temperatures, and sand bars that develop in smaller coastal rivers during the summer months favor an ocean-type life history (Kostow 1995). With this life history, smolts typically **outmigrate** as **subyearlings** during April through July (Myers *et al.* 1998). The ocean-type Chinook salmon in California tend to use estuaries and coastal areas for rearing more extensively than stream-type Chinook salmon. The brackish water areas in estuaries moderate the physiological stress that occurs during **parr-smolt** transitions.

2. Status of Stocks

a. *CC Chinook*

Primary causes for concern in the CC Chinook salmon ESU are low abundance, reduced distribution (particularly in the southern portion of the **ESU's** range), and generally negative trends in abundance; all of these concerns are especially strong for spring-run Chinook salmon in this ESU (Myers *et al.* 1998). Previous reviews of conservation status for Chinook salmon in this area exist. Nehlsen *et al.* (1991) identified three putative populations (Humboldt Bay Tributaries, **Mattole** River, and Russian River) as being at high risk of extinction and three other populations (Redwood Creek, Mad River, and Lower Eel River) as being at moderate risk of

extinction. Higgins *et al.* (1992) identified seven "stocks of concern," of which two populations (tributaries to Humboldt Bay and the Mattole River) were considered to be at high risk of extinction.

Natural populations of Chinook salmon in the Russian River may no longer exist. No long-term, continuous time series are available for sites in the Russian River basin, but sporadic estimates based on **spawner** surveys are available for some tributaries. Video-based counts of upstream migrating adult Chinook salmon passing a temporary dam near Mirabel on the Russian River are available for 2000-2002. Counts are incomplete, due to technical difficulties with the video apparatus, occasional periods of poor water clarity, occasional overwhelming numbers of fish, and disparities between counting and migration periods; thus, these data represent a minimum count of adult Chinook. Counts have exceeded 1,300 fish in each of the last three years (5,465 in 2002); and a rigorous mark-recapture estimate of **outmigrant** abundance in 2002 exceeded 200,000 (Shawn Chase, Sonoma County Water Agency, personal communication, 2003).

Few new data, and few new datasets for the CC Chinook ESU are available for consideration, and none of the recent data contradict the conclusions of previous status reviews.

b. *CVSR Chinook salmon*

The Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon ESU has had the most dramatic decline of the four Chinook salmon runs in the Central Valley (Campbell and Moyle 1990, Fisher 1994). The main threats to spring-run Chinook salmon include loss of most historic spawning habitat, degradation of remaining habitat, and genetic threats from the Feather River Hatchery of spring-run Chinook salmon program (NOAA Fisheries 2003). The majority of the large populations of spring-run Chinook salmon in the Central Valley has been extirpated and the remaining populations have been significantly reduced (Campbell and Moyle 1990). Spring-run Chinook salmon have displayed broad fluctuations in abundance, ranging from lows of 426 in 1966 and 3,044 in 1992 to highs of 27,890 in 1982 and 33,771 in 1998.

Historically, spring-run Chinook salmon were predominant throughout the Central Valley, occupying the upper and middle reaches of the San Joaquin, American, Yuba, Feather, Sacramento, McCloud, and Pit Rivers, with smaller populations in other tributaries with sufficient habitat for over-summering adults (Stone 1874, Rutter 1904, Clark 1929). In the late 1940's, spring-run Chinook salmon were extirpated from the upper San Joaquin River, and only remnant populations persisted in the San Joaquin basin through the 1950's.

Spring-run Chinook salmon are currently restricted to the Sacramento River drainage. Hybridization with fall-run Chinook salmon in several Sacramento Valley streams threaten their ability to remain a distinct race in the mainstem Sacramento River (Slater 1963). For example, based on coded wire tag identifications, nearly a quarter of returning **spawners** to the Feather River Hatchery were spring-fall hybrids (CDFG, unpublished data). Self-sustaining wild populations of spring-run Chinook salmon occur only in Mill, Deer, and Butte Creeks in the

Sacramento River drainage, and remain vulnerable to extirpation (NOAA Fisheries 2003). Abundance data for Mill, Deer, Butte, and Big Chico creek spring-run Chinook salmon have been updated through 2001, and show that the increases in population that started in the early 1990s has continued. During this period, there have been significant habitat improvements (including the removal of several small dams and increases in summer flows) in these watersheds, as well as reduced ocean fisheries and a favorable terrestrial climate (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

C. Steelhead

1. Life History and Biological Requirements

Steelhead spend anywhere from one to five years in saltwater, however, two to three years are most common (Busby *et al.* 1996). Some return as "half-pounders" that **over-winter** one season in freshwater before returning to the ocean in the spring. The distribution of steelhead in the ocean is not well known. Coded wire tag recoveries indicate that most steelhead tend to migrate north and south along the continental shelf (Barnhart 1986).

Steelhead can be divided into two reproductive **ecotypes**, based upon their state of sexual maturity at the time of river entry and the duration of their spawning migration: stream maturing and ocean maturing. Stream maturing steelhead enter fresh water in a sexually immature condition and require several months to mature and spawn; whereas ocean maturing steelhead enter fresh water with well developed gonads and spawn shortly after river entry. These two reproductive ecotypes are more commonly referred to by their season of freshwater entry (i.e., summer [stream maturing] and winter steelhead [ocean maturing]). Adult summer steelhead typically **oversummer** in pools. Freshwater distribution of adult summer steelhead is affected by pool dimension, amount and type of cover, and water temperature (Reviewed in Nakamoto 1994, Nielsen *et al.* 1994, Baigun *et al.* 2000). Only winter steelhead are found in the CCC steelhead ESU, whereas both winter and summer steelhead are found in the NC steelhead ESU.

Busby *et al.* (1996) and Fukushima and Lesh (1998) document immigration timing for winter and summer steelhead throughout the action area. Typically, adult winter steelhead immigrate from September through June, while adult summer steelhead immigrate from March through September. Timing of upstream migration is correlated with higher flow events, such as freshets or sand bar breaches, and associated lower water temperatures. The minimum stream depth necessary for successful upstream migration is 13 cm (Thompson 1972). The preferred water velocity for upstream migration is in the range of 40-90 **cm/s**, with a maximum velocity, beyond which upstream migration is not likely to occur, of 240 **cm/s** (Thompson 1972, Smith 1973).

Most spawning takes place from January through April. Steelhead may spawn more than one season before dying (**iteroparity**), in contrast to other species of the *Oncorhynchus* genus. Although one-time spawners are the great majority, Shapovalov and Taft (1954) reported that repeat spawners are relatively numerous (17.2 percent) in California streams. Among repeat

spawners, the representation of each group declines as the number of spawnings increases. There is a sharp decline in numbers from second spawners (15.0 percent) to third spawners (2.1 percent). Fish spawning four or more times are rare (0.1 percent). Steelhead usually spawn in the tributaries where fish ascend as high as flows permit (United States Army Corps of Engineers 1982).

Because rearing juvenile steelhead reside in freshwater all year, adequate flow and temperature are important to the population at all times (CDFG 1997). Generally, throughout their range in California, steelhead that are successful in surviving to adulthood spend at least two years in freshwater before emigrating downstream. Emigration appears to be more closely associated with size than age. In Waddell Creek, Shapovalov and Taft (1954) found steelhead juveniles migrating downstream at all times of the year with the largest numbers of age 0+ and yearling steelhead moving downstream during spring and summer. Smolts can range from 14-21 cm in length.

Steelhead spawn in cool, clear streams featuring suitable water depth, gravel size, and current velocity. Intermittent streams may be used for spawning (Everest 1973, Barnhart 1986). Reiser and Bjornn (1979) found that gravels of 1.3-11.7 cm in diameter and flows of approximately 4 cfs were preferred by steelhead. The survival of embryos is reduced when fines of less than 6.4 mm comprise 20-25 percent of the substrate. Studies have shown a higher survival of embryos when **intragravel** velocities exceed 20 cm/hr (Coble 1961, Phillips and Campbell 1961). The number of days required for steelhead eggs to hatch is inversely proportional to water temperature and varies from about 19 days at 15.6°C to about 80 days at 5.6°C. Fry typically emerge from the gravel two to three weeks after hatching (Barnhart 1986).

Upon emerging from the gravel, fry rear in edgewater habitats and move gradually into pools and riffles as they grow larger. Older fry establish territories which they defend. Cover is an important habitat component for juvenile steelhead both as velocity refuge and as a means of avoiding predation (Shirvell 1990, Meehan and Bjornn 1991). Steelhead however, tend to use riffles and other habitats not strongly associated with cover during summer rearing more than other salmonids. Young steelhead feed on a wide variety of aquatic and terrestrial insects, and emerging fry are sometimes preyed upon by older juveniles. In winter, they become inactive and hide in any available cover, including gravel or woody debris.

Water temperature influences the growth rate, population density, swimming ability, ability to capture and metabolize food, and ability to withstand disease of these rearing juveniles (Barnhart 1986, Bjornn and Reiser 1991). Rearing steelhead juveniles prefer water temperatures of 7.2-14.4°C and have an upper lethal limit of 23.9°C. They can survive up to 27°C with saturated dissolved oxygen conditions and a plentiful food supply. Fluctuating diurnal water temperatures also aid in **survivability** of salmonids (Busby *et al.* 1996).

Dissolved oxygen (DO) levels of 6.5-7.0 mg/l affected the migration and swimming performance of steelhead juveniles at all temperatures (Davis *et al.* 1963). Reiser and Bjornn (1979)

recommended that DO concentrations remain at or near saturation levels with temporary reductions no lower than 5.0 mg/l for successful rearing of juvenile steelhead. Low DO levels decrease the rate of metabolism, swimming speed, growth rate, food consumption rate, efficiency of food utilization, behavior, and ultimately the survival of the juveniles.

During rearing, suspended and deposited fine sediments can directly affect salmonids by abrading and clogging gills, and indirectly cause reduced feeding, avoidance reactions, destruction of food supplies, reduced egg and alevin survival, and changed rearing habitat (Reiser and Bjornn 1979). Bell (1973) found that silt loads of less than 25 mg/l permit good rearing conditions for juvenile salmonids.

2. Status of Stocks

a. *NC steelhead*

Busby *et al.* (1996) provides a comprehensive review of estimates of historic abundance, decline and present status of steelhead in western United States. They reviewed previous assessments within this ESU that identified several stocks as being at risk or of special concern. Nehlson *et al.* (1991) identified three stocks as at risk of extinction: summer steelhead in Redwood Creek, Mad River, and Eel River. Higgins *et al.* (1992) provided a more detailed analysis of some of these stocks and identified 11 summer steelhead stocks as at risk or of concern.

Estimates of historical (**pre-1960s**) abundance specific to this ESU were available from dam counts in the upper Eel River (Cape Horn Dam--**annual** average of 4,400 adult steelhead in the 1930s; McEwan and Jackson 1996), the South Fork Eel River (Benbow Dam--**annual** average of 19,000 adult steelhead in the 1940s; McEwan and Jackson 1996), and the Mad River (Sweasey Dam--**annual** average of 3,800 adult steelhead in the 1940s; Murphy and Shapovalov 1951, CDFG 1994). In the mid-1960s, CDFG (1965) estimates steelhead spawning populations for many rivers in this ESU totaled 198,000. Estimated total run size for the major stocks in California (entire state) for the early 1980s was given by Light (1987) as approximately 275,000. Of these, 22 percent were of hatchery origin, resulting in a naturally produced run size of 215,000 steelhead. Roughly half of this production was thought to be in the Klamath River Basin (including the Trinity River), so the total natural production for all ESUs south of Punta Gorda was probably on the order of 100,000 adults. The only current run-size estimates for this area are counts at Cape Horn Dam on the Eel River where an average of 115 total and 30 wild adults were reported (McEwan and Jackson 1996). Although there is no estimate of total abundance for this ESU, steelhead appear widely distributed throughout the region.

Busby *et al.* (1996) computed adult escapement trends for seven stocks within this ESU. Of these, five data series exhibit declines and two exhibit increases during the available data series, with a range from 5.8 percent annual decline to 3.5 percent annual increase. Three of the declining trends were significantly different from zero. For one long data set (Eel River, Cape Horn Dam counts), a separate trend for the last 21 years (1971-91) was calculated for

comparison: while the full-series trend showed significant decline, the recent data showed a lesser, nonsignificant decline, suggesting that the major stock decline occurred prior to 1970. There has been little change in Northern California steelhead ESU status recently. Adams (2000) states that trend numbers have shown small increases, but there are no substantial changes in abundance of NC steelhead.

Hatchery fish are widespread and escaping to spawn naturally throughout the region. According to McEwan and Jackson (1996, p. 37), "despite the large number of hatchery smolts released, steelhead runs in north coast drainages are comprised mostly of naturally produced fish." We have little information on the actual contribution of hatchery fish to natural spawning, and little information on present total run sizes for this ESU. However, given the preponderance of significant negative trends in the available data, there is concern that steelhead populations in this ESU may not be self-sustaining. The major present threat to genetic integrity for steelhead in this ESU comes from past and present hatchery practices. Within this ESU, we have no information regarding spatial or temporal separation of spawning hatchery and natural fish, but there is probably sufficient overlap for some genetic **introgression** to occur.

b. CCC Steelhead

Only two estimates of historic (**pre-1960s**) abundance specific to this ESU are available: an average of about 500 adults in Waddell Creek in the 1930s and early 1940s (Shapovalov and Taft 1954), and 20,000 steelhead in the San Lorenzo River before 1965 (Johnson 1964). In the mid-**1960s**, 94,000 adult steelhead were estimated to spawn in the rivers of this ESU, including 50,000 fish in the Russian River and 19,000 fish in the San Lorenzo River (CDFG 1965).

The original BRT concluded that the ESU was in danger of extinction (Busby *et al.* 1996). Extirpation was considered especially likely in Santa Cruz County and in the tributaries of San Pablo and San Francisco Bays. The BRT suggested that abundance in the Russian River (the largest system inhabited by the ESU) has declined seven-fold since the **mid-1960s**, but abundance appeared to be stable in smaller systems. Two major sources of uncertainty were: 1) few data on run sizes, which necessitated that the listing be based on indirect evidence, such as habitat degradation; and 2) genetic heritage of populations in tributaries to San Francisco and San Pablo Bays was uncertain, causing the delineation of the geographic boundaries of the ESU to be uncertain. A status review update (Schiewe 1997) concluded that conditions had improved slightly, and that the ESU was not presently in danger of extinction, but was likely to become so in the foreseeable future. (Minorities supported both more and less extreme views on extinction risk.). Uncertainties in the update mainly revolved around inadequate sampling methods for estimating adult and juvenile numbers in various basins.

Recent estimates indicate an abundance of about 7,000 adult steelhead in the Russian River and about 500 fish in the San Lorenzo River. These estimates suggest that recent total abundance of steelhead in these two rivers is less than 15 percent of their abundance in the mid 1960s. Recent estimates for several other streams (**Lagunitas** Creek, Waddell Creek, Scott Creek, San Vincente

Creek, Soquel Creek, and Aptos Creek) indicate individual run sizes of 500 fish or less. Steelhead in most tributaries to San Francisco and San Pablo bays have been virtually extirpated (McEwan and Jackson 1996). Fair to good runs of steelhead still apparently occur in coastal Marin County tributaries. In a 1994 to 1997 survey of 30 San Francisco Bay watersheds, steelhead occurred in small numbers at 41 percent of the sites, including the Guadalupe River, San Lorenzo Creek, Corte Madera Creek, and Walnut Creek (Leidy 1997). While there are several concerns with these data (e.g., uncertainty regarding origin of juveniles), NOAA Fisheries believes it is generally a positive indicator that there is a relatively broad distribution of steelhead in smaller streams throughout the region.

Recent data for the Russian and San Lorenzo Rivers (e.g., CDFG 1994, Reavis 1991) suggested that these basins had populations smaller than 15 percent of the size that they had 30 years previously. These two basins were thought to have originally contained the two largest steelhead populations in the ESU.

Little information is available regarding the contribution of hatchery-produced fish to natural spawning of steelhead, and little information on present run sizes or trends for this ESU exists. However, given the substantial rates of declines for stocks where data do exist, the majority of natural production in this ESU is likely not self-sustaining (62 FR 43937).

c. SCCC steelhead

Data on this ESU are sparse. In the mid 1960s, the CDFG (1965) estimated that the ESU-wide run size was about 17,750 adults. Many of the streams have somewhat to highly impassable barriers, both natural and anthropogenic, and in their upper reaches, harbor populations of resident trout. The relationship between anadromous and resident *O. mykiss* is poorly understood in this ESU, but likely plays an important role in its population dynamics and evolutionary potential. A status review update conducted in 1997 (Schiewe 1997) listed numerous reports of juvenile *O. mykiss* in many coastal basins; but noted that the implications for adult numbers were unclear. The two largest river systems in this ESU—the Pajaro and Salinas basins—are much degraded and have steelhead runs much reduced in size. These two large systems are ecologically distinct from the populations in the Big Sur area and San Luis Obispo County, and thus, their degradation affects spatial structure and diversity of the ESU.

In 2002, an extensive study was made of steelhead occurrence in most of the coastal drainages between the northern and southern geographic boundaries of the ESU (David Boughton, NOAA Fisheries, personal communication, November 2003). Steelhead were considered to be present in a basin if adult or juvenile *O. mykiss* were observed in stream reaches that had access to the ocean (i.e., no impassable barriers between the ocean and the survey site), in any of the years 2000–2002 (i.e., within one steelhead generation). Of 37 drainages in which steelhead were known to have occurred historically, between 86 percent and 95 percent were currently occupied by *O. mykiss*. The range in the estimate of occupancy occurs because three basins could not be assessed due to restricted access. Of the vacant basins, two were considered to be vacant because

they were dry in 2002, and one was found to be watered but a snorkel survey revealed no *O. mykiss*. One of the "dry" **basins—Old Creek—is** dry because no releases were made from Whale Rock Reservoir; however, a land-locked population of steelhead is known to occur in the reservoir above the dam (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

Occupancy was also determined for **18** basins with no historical record of steelhead occurrence. Three of these **basins—Los Osos, Vicente, and Villa Creeks—were** found to be occupied by *O. mykiss*. It is somewhat surprising that no previous record of steelhead seems to exist for Los Osos Creek, near **Morro** Bay and San Luis Obispo. The current distribution of steelhead among the basins of the region is not much less than what occurred historically. This conclusion rests on the assumption that juveniles inhabiting stream reaches with access to the ocean will undergo **smoltification** and thus are truly steelhead.

Data available for the **Carmel** River are the only time-series available for this ESU. These data suggest that the abundance of adult spawners in the Carmel River has increased since the last status review. Continuous data has been collected for the period **1988** through 2002. The beginning of this time series has counts of zero adults for three consecutive years, then shows a rapid increase in abundance. The time series is too short to infer anything about the underlying dynamic cause of the positive trend. It is possible that the trend arises from immigration of adults (or the planting of juveniles) from other areas; in particular, from the lower reaches of the Carmel River below San Clemente dam. The rapid increase in adult abundance from 1991 (one adult) to 1997 (775 adults) seems great enough to require substantial immigration or transplantation as an explanation. While steelhead populations in the Carmel River appear to be increasing the effects of the drought in the **1980s**, the current dependence of the population on intensive management of the river system, and the vulnerability of the population to future droughts continue to be cause for concern in the Carmel River.

d. CV steelhead

Central Valley steelhead once ranged throughout most of the tributaries and headwaters of the Sacramento and San Joaquin basins prior to dam construction, water development, and watershed perturbations of the **19th** and 20th centuries (McEwan and Jackson 1996). Steelhead counts at the Red Bluff Diversion Dam (**RBDD**) in the upper Sacramento River declined from an average of 11,187 for the period of 1967 to 1977, to an average of approximately 2,000 through the early **1990's** (McEwan 2001). Recent estimates from trawling data in the San Francisco-San Joaquin Delta suggest estimates of over 3,600 female steelhead spawn in the Central Valley basin (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

Existing wild steelhead stocks in the Central Valley are mostly confined to upper Sacramento River and its tributaries, including Antelope, Deer, Mill Creeks, and American, Feather and Yuba Rivers (McEwan and Jackson 1996). Naturally spawning populations are known to occur in Butte Creek, and the upper Sacramento, Feather, American, and Stanislaus Rivers (**CALFED** Bay-Delta Program 2000). Until recently, steelhead were thought to be extirpated from the San

Joaquin River system. Recent monitoring has detected self-sustaining populations of steelhead in the Stanislaus, **Mokelumne**, Calaveras, and other streams previously thought to be void of steelhead (McEwan 2001). The lack of monitoring programs unfortunately limits the ability to detect naturally spawning populations that may be present in other tributaries (Interagency Ecological Program Steelhead Project Work Team 1999).

IV. ENVIRONMENTAL BASELINE

The environmental baseline includes the past and present impacts of all Federal, State, or private actions and other human activities in the action area, the anticipated impacts of all proposed Federal projects in the action area that have already undergone formal or early section 7 consultation, and the impact of State or private actions which are contemporaneous with the consultation in process (50 CFR §402.02).

The action area includes a large portion of each ESU considered in this consultation. We primarily describe the environmental baseline on an **ESU-scale**. However, we also present focused information on certain watersheds where proposed **projects** may have a greater impact on local populations based on current information on the population's status.

A. Description of the Action Area

The action area includes all coastal California streams north of the Santa Maria River in San Luis Obispo County north to the **Oregon/California** border and streams draining into San Francisco and San Pablo bays, including the Sacramento-San Joaquin River Basin.

B. Factors Affecting the Environment Within the Action Area

NOAA Fisheries cites many reasons (primarily anthropogenic) for the decline of coho salmon (Weitkamp *et al.* 1995), Chinook salmon (Myers *et al.* 1998), and steelhead (Busby *et al.* 1996). The foremost reason for the decline in these anadromous salmonid populations is the degradation **and/or** destruction of habitat. Additional factors contributing to the decline of these populations include: commercial and recreational harvest, ocean conditions, predation, natural stochastic events, and water quality. Scientific research and habitat restoration activities may affect anadromous salmonid populations within the action area, but have not been specifically identified as factors contributing to the decline of these populations.

Many of the biological requirements for anadromous salmonids in the action area can best be expressed in terms of the essential features of their habitat. That is, they require adequate: (1) substrate (especially spawning gravel), (2) water quality, (3) water quantity, (4) water temperature, (5) water velocity, (6) cover/shelter, (7) food, (8) riparian vegetation, (9) space, and (10) migration conditions. The best scientific information presently available demonstrates that a

multitude of factors, past and present, have contributed to the decline of west coast salmonids by adversely affecting these essential habitat features.

We describe factors affecting the ESUs within the action area separately for Coastal streams and Central Valley streams to emphasize the difference in the role of the factors in the two regions.

1. Coastal Streams

In this section, we discuss specific, followed by general risk factors for listed salmonids inhabiting coastal streams in the action area.

CCC coho salmon. Currently, the main risk factors for CCC coho salmon include extremely low contemporary abundance compared to historical abundance, widespread local extinctions, clear downward trends in abundance, extensive habitat degradation, and associated decreases in carrying capacity. Additionally, the main stocks of coho salmon in the CCC ESU have been heavily influenced by hatcheries and there are relatively few native coho salmon left in the ESU (Weitkamp *et al.* 1995). Most existing stocks have a history of hatchery planting, with many out-of-ESU stock transfers. A subsequent status review (Schiewe 1996b), which focused on existing hatcheries, concluded that, despite the historical introduction of non-native fish, the Scott Creek (Kingfisher Flat) and Noyo River brood stocks have regularly incorporated wild broodstock and, thus, are unlikely to differ from naturally spawning fish within the ESU. Recent droughts and unfavorable ocean conditions have also been identified as natural factors contributing to reduced run size (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

SONCC coho salmon. No new information has been provided that suggests risks beyond those identified in previous status reviews for SONCC coho salmon. Termination of hatchery production of coho salmon at the Mad River and Rowdy Creek facilities has eliminated potential adverse risks associated with hatchery releases from these facilities. Likewise, restrictions on recreational and commercial harvest of coho salmon since 1994 have likely had a positive impact on coho salmon adult returns to SONCC streams (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

CCC steelhead. Within the CCC steelhead ESU, two significant habitat blockages are the Coyote and Warm Springs Dams in the Russian River watershed; data indicated that other smaller fish passage problems were widespread in the geographic range of the ESU. Other impacts to this ESU include: urbanization and poor land-use practices; catastrophic flooding in 1964 causing habitat degradation; and **dewatering** due to irrigation and diversion. Principal hatchery production in the region comes from the Warm Springs Hatchery on the Russian River, and the Monterey Bay Salmon and Trout Project on a tributary of Scott Creek (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

NC steelhead. The previous status review (Busby *et al.* 1996) identified two major barriers to fish passage in the NC steelhead ESU: Mathews Dam on the Mad River and Scott Dam on the Eel River. Numerous other blockages on tributaries were also thought to occur. Poor forest

practices and poor land use practices, combined with catastrophic flooding in 1964, were thought to have caused significant declines in habitat quality that then persisted up to the date of the status review. These effects include sedimentation and loss of spawning gravels. Non-native Sacramento pikeminnow (*Ptychocheilus grandis*) had been observed in the Eel River Basin and could potentially be acting as predators on juvenile steelhead (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

SCCC steelhead. Risk factors in the SCCC steelhead ESU include the presence of numerous minor habitat blockages likely throughout the region; habitat degradation; and dewatering from irrigation and urban water diversions. Many of the streams have somewhat to highly impassable barriers, both natural and anthropogenic, and in their upper reaches, harbor populations of resident trout (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

CC Chinook. Previous status reviews considered the following to pose significant risks to the CC Chinook Salmon ESU: degradation of freshwater habitats due to a variety of agricultural and forestry practices, water diversions, urbanization, mining, and severe recent flood events (exacerbated by land use practices). Special concern was noted regarding the more precipitous declines in distribution and abundance in spring-run Chinook salmon. Many of these factors are particularly acute in the southern portion of the ESU range and were compounded by uncertainty stemming from the general lack of population monitoring in California (Myers *et al.* 1998).

There are two watersheds of northern California coastal ESUs where numerous research projects have occurred in the past, or are proposed, and therefore warrant further detail: Redwood Creek and Freshwater Creek. These projects include those proposed for exemption under 4(d) rules or authorized by section 10(a)(1)(A) permits. These watersheds are attractive to researchers because they both have adequate populations of salmon and steelhead to support projects, they are close to Humboldt State University and local offices of U. S. Fish and Wildlife Service and CDFG, the watersheds are made up of largely publicly owned lands or have cooperative land owners, and, in the case of Freshwater Creek, there is an active volunteer group involved the watershed's monitoring and restoration programs. Most all of the same myriad of anthropogenic activities that have negatively impacted salmonid habitat through out the action area have also impacted the Redwood Creek and Freshwater Creek watersheds. What follows is a brief description of environmental baseline descriptions for these watersheds.

Redwood Creek. The Redwood Creek watershed is located in the Northern Coast Range of California. Redwood Creek flows into the Pacific Ocean near Orick. The drainage area at the stream mouth is about 285 square miles. The basin is narrow and elongated, with its long axis oriented northwest-southeast. The total length of the basin is about 65 miles, and its width varies from 4 to 7 miles. Total basin relief is about 5,300 feet, with a mean annual basin-wide precipitation of approximately 80 inches.

Timber harvesting is the most widespread land use in Redwood Creek basin. Over 85 percent of the basin upstream of Redwood National Park has been logged, including about 30 percent which

was logged between 1978-1992. About 1,200 miles of forest roads and 5,400 miles of skid trails were built within the Redwood Creek watershed as of 1978. Recent surveys located about 1,200 sites with potential or existing erosional problems along old haul roads in the Park. In addition, about 20 miles of state highway and county roads cross the watershed, including several miles of abandoned state highway. However, since 1981, former log-haul roads have been the primary focus of the watershed restoration efforts within Redwood National Park. About 175 miles of logging roads have been treated since 1978.

Salmonid habitat in the lower portions of Redwood Creek, including the estuary, has been degraded by the flood control levees, which were built by the U.S. Army Corps of Engineers in 1968. The levee bisects the estuary at the mouth of Redwood Creek and drastically impairs the physical and biological functions of the estuary and adjacent wetlands, confining the Redwood Creek channel to a width of 300 feet for a length of 3.4 miles. Mining within the Redwood Creek watershed has been limited to gravel mining within the channel of Redwood Creek and rock quarries and borrow pits used for road construction. Gravel has been mined between the flood-control levees on Lower Redwood Creek, near the mouth of Prairie Creek, at the mouth of Tom McDonald Creek, and near Highway 299.

Although currently improving, the loss of canopy closure in the upper Redwood Creek basin due to removal of **streamside** trees has contributed to high water temperatures in the mainstem. Limited information is available concerning large woody debris within the riparian management zone in Redwood Creek. Due to harvesting of riparian forests along Redwood Creek and its tributaries along with **streambank** erosion, recruitment of LWD is well below historic levels, which diminishes the amount of rearing habitat available to juvenile salmonids. This condition is likely to persist into the future as deciduous willows and alders take the place of evergreen conifers along much of the mainstem and tributaries.

Channel deposition has destroyed much of the **pool/riffle** configuration of the creek, drastically reducing rearing habitat for fish. Although channel deepening and pool development have been observed in all but the lower few miles of the creek, the mainstem generally lacks an adequate pool-riffle structure and cover. Redwood Creek's ability to support fish populations is determined by habitat availability and quality. Habitat availability is limited by, among other things, physical barriers such as boulders, debris jams, dams, culverts, and dewatered stream segments caused by aggradation (rising stream bed elevation).

SONCC coho salmon, CC Chinook salmon, and NC steelhead in Redwood Creek are much reduced in comparison to historic accounts. Available adult survey data from Redwood Creek and its tributaries suggest that yearly adult population numbers for both SONCC coho salmon and CC Chinook salmon number in the hundreds to perhaps a few thousand. Documented escapement numbers of adult coho salmon in Prairie Creek (a tributary of Redwood Creek) for the years 1999-2002 are 69, 53, 252, and 363 individuals for each year respectively. Based upon mark and recapture efficiency rates, CDFG estimated the number of 0+ Chinook salmon leaving upper Redwood Creek in 2002 at 518,189, compared with 378,063 in 2001 and 427,542 in 2000.

Surveys of NC steelhead suggest that their yearly adult population numbers fall within the range of hundreds of individuals. Based upon mark and recapture efficiency rates, CDFG estimated the number of 1+ steelhead leaving upper Redwood Creek in 2002 at 28,501, compared with 50,654 in 2001 and 68,328 in 2000. Approximately 7,370 2+ steelhead **outmigrated** in 2002, compared with 12,668 in 2001 and 4,739 in 2000.

Freshwater Creek. The Freshwater Creek watershed is a 31 square mile drainage basin located approximately five miles east of Eureka, in Humboldt County, California. Major land uses in the watershed are forestry (91 percent of the watershed area), **agricultural**/residential (8 percent), and power line right-of-way (1 percent).

Freshwater Creek is listed under section 303(d) of the Clean Water Act as water quality limited due to excess sediment. Freshwater Creek has also been listed by the California Department of Forestry as cumulatively affected by excess sediment. Excess sediment generated and mobilized in Freshwater Creek will ultimately impact habitat in the action area through filling due to siltation, and seasonal reductions in water quality during storm generated runoff.

Since the late 1800s rural residential and urban development have been concentrated in the lower elevation hills and areas that transition from **hillslopes** into valley bottoms above flood plains and former **estuarine** areas. Due to gradual subdividing and infilling of former farm properties, the rural character of area has been replaced by a more suburban setting containing sprawling homes, modern commercial properties, mobile home courts, and at least one "custom home" park.

The Freshwater Community Plan contains the premise that no major water or sewer extensions will be made in the foreseeable future due to lack of support by the planning area's residents. The North Coast Regional Water Quality Control Board's (RWQCB) adoption of a "waiver prohibition area" in the Humboldt Bay area requires strict adherence to the RWQCB's septic tank criteria with no variance allowed. The waiver prohibition has made septic tank permits more difficult to obtain in the planning area. This prohibition will likely result in a less housing development in the Freshwater Watershed and a corresponding decrease in adverse affects to salmonids associated with urbanization.

Hatchery plants of coho salmon by the Humboldt Fish Action Council (HFAC) in Freshwater Creek ceased in 1995, but Chinook salmon supplementation has continued. The HFAC hatchery program for Freshwater Creek may be inflating adult Chinook salmon and coho salmon returns in some years since 1978.

From 1986 through 1999, between 0 (1997) and 91 (1987) CC Chinook salmon adults were counted during **spawner** surveys; in five of the nine years the number was less than 10. In these same years, the number of NC steelhead counted ranged between 0 and 27, in seven of the nine years the number was 2 or less. The number of SONCC coho salmon adults counted in spawner surveys ranged from 602 (1987) to 0 in 1998. Between 1992 and 2000, adult coho salmon trapped at the fish weir on Freshwater Creek has ranged from less than 50 (1998) to between 100

and 200 (1992, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2000) with a peak of 500+ in 1996. Since 2000, the number of returning adult salmonids to Freshwater Creek has increased. In 2001-2002 707 SONCC coho salmon, 122 CC Chinook salmon, and 76 NC steelhead were trapped at the Freshwater Creek fish weir; in 2002-2003, 459 SONCC coho salmon, 71 CC Chinook salmon, and 91 NC steelhead (**Seth Ricker**, CDFG, Pers. Comm.) Based on mark and recapture data, an estimated 1500 adult SONCC coho salmon returned to the watershed.

In Freshwater Creek, coho salmon are found in each of the sub-basins, with the possible exception of School Forest, up to the point where either natural barriers or increasing stream gradient limits their distribution. The highest densities of coho salmon can be found in the lower reaches of Cloney Gulch, Upper Freshwater, McCready Gulch, and possibly the mid- to lower mainstem of Freshwater Creek. Steelhead are found in each of the sub-basins, with the possible exception of School Forest, up to the point where either natural barriers or increasing stream gradient limits their distribution. Steelhead are most common in Upper Freshwater Creek. In the Freshwater Creek basin, Chinook salmon tend to be found primarily in lower and middle portions of the mainstem of Freshwater Creek and lower portions of South Fork Freshwater Creek where significant deposits of coarse gravel are found.

a. Agriculture

Agricultural practices have contributed to the degradation of salmonid habitat on the West Coast through irrigation diversions, overgrazing in riparian areas, and compaction of soils in upland areas from livestock (reviewed in 61 FR 56138.) These practices have also altered the natural flow patterns of streams and rivers within the action area. Early agricultural practices have resulted in filled sloughs and side channels and removed riparian vegetation. River valleys have been leveled and water courses channelized, altering drainage and runoff patterns. Agricultural operations removed riparian vegetation, small **in-channel** islands, and gravel bars to increase arable acreage and achieve flood control.

Vegetation removal and channel destabilization has accelerated erosion. In response to increased erosion, bank stabilization measures began and continued as cultivated acreage increased. Stabilization measures increased channel straightening which expedited channel **downcutting**. In addition to changing river morphology, agricultural practices decrease water quality by releasing fertilizers and pesticides into streams and rivers (**Florsheim and Goodwin 1993**). Enrichment from manures is also a problem where barns and livestock are adjacent to watercourses. Maahs *et al.* (1984) reported that the largest diffuse source of water quality degradation comes from agriculture-derived contaminants such as sediment, nutrients and pesticides (reported in **Osborne and Kovacic (1993)**).

Grazing activities in coastal watersheds have resulted in loss of native perennial grasses and riparian vegetation; soil loss; hillside trailing and gullying; and the incision of swales and meadows. Soils compacted by overgrazing on land with minimal vegetative cover have significantly reduced infiltration rates. Instead of the water moving into the soil it moves rapidly

over it, delivering heavy runoff to streams, which in turn can result in flashy watersheds (Kohler and Hubert 1993). This altered cycle is characterized by reduced **groundwater** storage capacity, and a greater propensity for intermittent stream flow during low flow periods. The response within the stream corridor is one of bank erosion, channel scour, and loss of riparian and fish habitat.

The vigor, composition and diversity of natural vegetation can be altered by livestock grazing in and around riparian areas. This in turn can affect the site's ability to control erosion, provide stability to stream banks, and provide shade, cover, and nutrients to the stream. Mechanical compaction can reduce the productivity of the soils appreciably and cause bank slough and erosion. Mechanical bank damage often leads to channel widening, lateral stream migration, and excess sedimentation. (Reviewed in 61 FR 56138.)

b. Forestry

Forestry practices have limited production of anadromous salmonids and affected their habitat in many ways. Habitat degradation by forestry activities has mostly occurred in tributaries, which mostly affects spawning and early-rearing juvenile salmonids. Populations are limited in tributary and mainstem habitats by the loss of large woody debris, debris barriers, increased temperatures, massive siltation, loss of riparian cover diversity, road building and maintenance causing increased sedimentation of fines and the filling of pools. **Bilby and Bisson 1998** (as reported in **Standiford and Arcilla 2001**) stated that large woody debris in Northern California streams has generally decreased over the last century due to forestry practices. The loss of large woody debris affects fish in that there is less habitat complexity, less deposition of sediment, less deposition of fine organic matter that feeds stream invertebrates, and fewer pool forming elements.

Forestry practices have also affected salmonid habitat by the removal of **streamside** vegetation, accelerating erosion, the introduction and removal of organic debris, and altering the shape of the channel (**Chamberlin 1982**). The removal of riparian vegetation along the channel from logging activities can result in increased stream temperatures (**Beschta et al. 1987**). These temperature changes can impact salmonids by influencing factors such as rates of egg development, rearing success and species competition and increase their susceptibility to diseases. Increased erosion can occur as a result of forestry activities. Site disturbance and road construction typically increase sediment delivery to streams through mass wasting and surface erosion, which can elevate levels of fine sediment in spawning gravels and fill pool habitats used by salmonids for rearing (**Spence et al. 1996**).

The effects of introducing organic debris can be positive in that organic debris controls sediment transport and provides habitat for aquatic organisms (**Swanson and Lienkaemper 1978**, **Keller and Swanson 1979**, **Bryant 1980**), however, the introduction of excessive amounts can impede fish movement and reduce dissolved oxygen levels (**Hall and Lantz 1969**). Logging activities can also lead to morphological changes in the channel due to increased sediment inputs (**Reid**

1994). These changes include the widening and increased braiding of some streams and the filling in of pools. When flows on these streams spread too widely, upstream migration of adults is hindered. The loss of pools decreases available habitat for salmonids and removes cool water refuges needed for summer survival in some streams.

Timber harvest related activities in the past have had more impact across forested ecosystems than current timber practices, especially those that employed ground-based equipment methods just after World War II. The majority of private and state timber land holdings within the Coastal action area have been harvested, leading to a decrease in habitat quality for salmonids. Also, the removal of riparian trees during timber harvesting activities reduces shading and recruitment of organic debris important in maintaining salmonid habitats (Spence *et al.* 1996). Past timber harvest and to some extent ongoing timber harvest activities along many streams within the Coastal action area have contributed to decreases in wild populations of anadromous salmonids over time.

c. Urban Development

Urbanization has degraded anadromous salmonid habitat through stream channelization, flood plain drainage, and riparian damage (reviewed in 61 FR 56138). When watersheds are urbanized, problems may result simply because structures are placed in the path of natural runoff processes, or because the urbanization itself has induced changes in the hydrologic regime. In almost every point that urbanization activity touches the watershed, point source and nonpoint pollution occurs. Sources of nonpoint pollution, such as sediments washed from the urban areas, contain trace metals such as copper, cadmium, zinc, and lead (California State Lands Commission 1993). These, together with pesticides, herbicides, fertilizers, gasoline, and other petroleum products, contaminate drainage waters and harm aquatic life necessary for anadromous salmonid survival. Water infiltration is reduced due to extensive ground covering. As a result, runoff from the watershed is flashier, with increased flood hazard (Leopold 1968). Flood control and land drainage schemes may concentrate runoff, resulting in increased bank erosion which causes a loss of riparian vegetation and undercut banks and eventually causes widening and down-cutting of the stream channel.

Florsheim and Goodwin (1993) found that as urban centers develop, there was an initial influx of sediment into streams from erosion, followed by an increase in runoff from the large areas of concrete and asphalt once building is complete. This resulted in increased flooding and stream bank erosion, to which the frequent human response was stream channelization, particularly on tributaries. Steiner Environmental Consulting (1996) was concerned that roads may pose the greatest threat of urbanization to streams. They concluded that road construction and **unpaved** roads caused significant direct sediment input to streams, i.e., poorly designed road cuts and inadequate grading maintenance frequently resulted in **hillslope** failure.

As human population expanded, demand for gravel and water increased proportionately, resulting in altered stream channels and degraded habitat, either directly or through cumulative

negative impacts to the river system (Steiner Environmental Consulting 1996). Florsheim and Goodwin (1993) determined that stream pollution increased with higher human density, degrading water quality for both people and wildlife. Increased water demands and unscreened diversions threaten newly emerged fry (Steiner Environmental Consulting 1996).

Roads, bridges, and residential development located in flood plains have historically been supported by an ongoing process of channel maintenance to protect the existing infrastructure. These channel maintenance activities include removal of large woody debris, armoring of stream banks with rip-rap, construction of gabions and engineered bank stabilization structures, diking and **rechanneling** of natural stream channels. Although many of these activities have been scaled back or curtailed in recent years, the effects of these activities are still influencing salmonid populations within the basin.

Urbanization has been a major influence on the land surrounding the San Francisco Bay Estuary. In the past 150 years, the diking and filling of tidal marshes have decreased the surface area of San Francisco Bay by 37 percent. More than 500,000 acres of the estuary's historic tidal wetlands have been converted to farms, salt ponds, and urban uses. Today, nearly 30 percent of the land in the nine counties surrounding San Francisco Bay is urbanized. The increase in urban land reflects the growth of the human population. There are now more than 7.5 million individuals living in the 12 Bay Area counties, making the region the fourth most populous metropolitan area in the United States. These changes have reduced the acreage of valuable farm land, wetlands, and riparian areas, and have increased pollutant loadings to the estuary. Installation of docks, shipping wharves, marinas, and miles of rock rip rap for shoreline protection has also contributed greatly to habitat degradation within the estuary.

Channel manipulations for flood control, bank stabilization, and gravel extraction have reduced the amount of valuable riffle habitat for rearing juvenile salmonids throughout the coastal stream portion of the action area.

d. Water Quality

Many waterways in the coastal action area fail to meet the Federal Clean Water Act and Federal Safe Drinking Water Act water quality standards due to the presence of pesticides, heavy metals, dioxins and other pollutants. These pollutants originate from both point- (industrial and municipal waste) and nonpoint (agriculture, forestry, urban activities, etc.) sources. The types and amounts of compounds found in runoff are often correlated with land use patterns: fertilizers and pesticides are found frequently in agricultural and urban settings, and nutrients are found in areas with human and animal waste. People contribute to chemical pollution in the area, but natural and seasonal factors also influence pollution levels in various ways. Nutrient and pesticide concentrations vary considerably from season to season, as well as among regions with different geographic and **hydrological** conditions. Natural features (such as geology and soils) and land-management practices (such as storm water drains, tile drainage and irrigation) can influence the movement of chemicals over both land and water. Salmon require clean water and

gravel for successful spawning, egg incubation, and fry emergence. Fine sediments clog the spaces between gravel and restrict the flow of oxygen-rich water to the incubating eggs. Pollutants, excess nutrients, low levels of dissolved oxygen, heavy metals, and changes in pH also directly affect the water quality for salmon and steelhead. Return water from irrigated fields can introduce nutrients and pesticides into streams and rivers. Sediments washed from the urban areas contain trace metals such as copper, cadmium, zinc, and lead (California State Lands Commission 1993).

e. Altered Flow Patterns

Instream flows within the Coastal action area are strongly influenced by land-use practices, water diversion, and seasonal weather patterns. Loss of native perennial vegetation, soil compaction, and hillside trailing by livestock has produced an abbreviated hydrologic cycle within a significant portion of the streams within the Coastal action area. This altered cycle is characterized by higher peak flows during storm events; a rapid decline in flows during the spring; and a greater propensity for intermittent stream flow during low flow periods (R. Smith, United States Forest Service, personal communication, 2002).

In some of the larger river systems, regulated flows from mainstem dams has increased summer stream flow eliminating thermal stratification of pools, and have led to a shift in the fish community to **warmwater** fish species. Flow and temperature conditions now favor **warmwater** species in many of these mainstem systems and have compromised salmonid rearing and migration. Regulated flows also enable agricultural and urban development within these watersheds which has resulted in further impacts to salmonids in the form of increased runoff to streams, increased sedimentation, channelized tributaries, impacts to riparian vegetation, and decreases in stream flow (Spence *et al.* 1996).

Intermittent stream flows within the Coastal action area are a significant problem for rearing juvenile salmonids. Many smaller streams experience seasonal dewatering to a certain degree. When these seasonal intermittent flows occur, juvenile salmonids are trapped in isolated pools. Survival of these fish is relatively low and mortality has been reported in some studies to be as high as 47 percent for coho salmon and 82 percent for steelhead in some of these streams (R. Smith, United States Forest Service, personal communication, 2002). Mortality most often results from the effects of poor water quality, predation, reduced forage sources, **and/or** dessication of habitat. In one study (R. Smith, United States Forest Service, personal communication, 2002), it was estimated that this mortality alone accounted for approximately 33 percent of the total estimated juvenile coho salmon population in **Olema** Creek, California, during 1999.

Water is diverted from coastal streams for urban, commercial, agricultural, and residential use. In addition to a number of large reservoirs on coastal streams, there are an unknown number of permanent and temporary water withdrawal facilities that divert water for similar purposes. Impacts from water withdrawals include localized dewatering of stream reaches, entrapment of

younger salmonids, and depletion of flows necessary for migration, spawning, rearing, flushing of sediment from spawning gravels, gravel recruitment, and transport of large woody debris. Unprotected or poorly screened water diversions can also impact young salmonids; young fry are easily drawn into water pumps or become stuck against the pump's screened intakes. Unscreened or inadequately screened diversions are common throughout the action area.

Water withdrawals (primarily for irrigation) have reduced summer flows in nearly every stream in the action area and thereby profoundly decreased the amount and quality of salmonid rearing habitat. Water quantity problems are a significant cause of habitat degradation and reduced fish production. A significant proportion of the action area is irrigated. Although some of the water withdrawn from streams eventually returns as agricultural runoff or groundwater recharge, crops consume a large proportion of it. Withdrawals affect seasonal flow patterns by removing water from streams in the summer (mostly May through September) and restoring it to surface streams and groundwater in ways that are difficult to measure. Withdrawing water for irrigation, urban consumption, and other uses increases temperatures, **smolt** travel time, and sedimentation.

/ *Gravel Mining*

Gravel mining is a major cause of sediment deficit in coastal California watersheds. In-channel mining removes gravel by either skimming it from bars or excavating it directly from the channel. Over-harvesting of gravel can lead to river incision, bank erosion, habitat simplification, and tributary downcutting (Steiner Environmental Consulting 1996).

Gravel mining has resulted in morphological changes to many coastal river systems. Decreased sediment load has caused these rivers to increase in depth, resulting in extensive bank erosion (Florsheim and Goodwin 1993). Degradation or downcutting of the channel due to past mining in the middle reaches of some rivers has also lead to impacts on adjacent ground water tables.

Loss of spawning gravels has a direct impact on salmonids within the action area. Female salmon choose spawning sites where there is clean, loosely compacted gravel or cobble substrates with less than 20 percent fine silt or sand content, and an **intergravel** flow sufficient to aerate the eggs. The lack of suitable gravel often limits successful spawning in many streams.

Turbidity as a result of increased erosion and sedimentation caused by gravel mining can also be a limiting factor for anadromous salmonid populations. Salmonids are particularly sensitive to turbidity (Bjornn and Reiser 1991); it may lead to failed spawning, reduced respiratory efficiency, interruption of migration, altered prey base, reduced visibility, and reduction in plant production. Reduced plant production may, in turn, lead to lower dissolved oxygen levels and diminished food and cover for fish and aquatic insects.

g. Dams

Dams have a wide variety of functions including **hydropower** production, residential, commercial, and agricultural water supply; and flood **and/or** debris control. The development of dams in the rivers in the action area has dramatically affected anadromous salmonids utilizing these streams. Dams have eliminated spawning and rearing habitat and altered the natural **hydrograph** of most of the major river systems within the action area, decreasing spring and summer flows and increasing fall and winter flows. Channel narrowing can occur as the riparian zone becomes overgrown with vegetation that would otherwise have been scoured by frequent but moderate flows (Kondolf 1997). Dams cause flow levels and river elevations to fluctuate, slowing fish movement through reservoirs, altering riparian ecology, and stranding fish in shallow areas. The numerous dams within the action area alter salmonid migrations and may kill smolts and adults. Dams have also converted once-swift riverine environments into a series of slow-moving reservoirs, slowing the **smolts'** journey to the ocean and creating habitat for predators.

The construction of dams on rivers alters the transportation of sediment through the stream system. The inability to access tributary habitat areas limits anadromous salmonid populations throughout the coastal action area. Large mainstem dams on major rivers as well as smaller dams on tributaries degrade or block access to the most important salmonid spawning and rearing habitat. These dams not only interfere with the upstream migration of salmon and steelhead, but also reduce the highest flows that would occur without them, thus inhibiting the ability of the stream to flush out the system and move sediment through the stream channel.

Dams block the movement of sediments, limiting the recruitment of necessary spawning gravel downstream. Sediment above the dam is prevented from moving downstream, and sediment transport below the dam is changed. Channel characteristics, including the configuration and character of pools, riffles, and glides, are altered. Florsheim and Goodwin (1993) found that decreased downstream sediment transport caused a myriad of morphological problems, including increased river depth, which resulted in extensive bank erosion. In addition, tributary dams and domestic or agricultural water diversions reduce downstream flows and increase water temperatures (Prolysts, Inc. and Beak Consultants, Inc. 1984). Steiner Environmental Consulting (1996) reported that according to the United States Army Corps of Engineers (1982), the loss of tributary habitat was the primary factor limiting the recovery of the anadromous fishery in the Russian River basin.

Dams used for flood control have led to channel erosion, accompanied by an increase in particle size of the bed material. Since salmonids use freshwater gravels to incubate their eggs, the presence of the larger cobbles and boulders can threaten their spawning success (Kondolf 1997).

h. Commercial and Recreational Harvest

Historically, salmon and steelhead were abundant in coastal and interior streams of the coastal action area and have supported substantial tribal, sport, and commercial fisheries - contributing millions of dollars to numerous local economies. Over-fishing in the early days of the European settlement led to the depletion of many stocks of salmon and steelhead even before extensive habitat degradation. More recently, **overfishing** in **nontribal** fisheries is believed to have been a significant factor in the decline of salmon and steelhead. This included significant overfishing that occurred from the time marine survival turned poor for many stocks (ca. 1976) until the mid-1990s when harvest was substantially curtailed. Since 1994, the retention of coho salmon has been prohibited in marine fisheries south of Cape Falcon, Oregon. Coho salmon are still impacted, however, as a result of **hook-and-release** mortality in Chinook salmon-directed fisheries. Sport and commercial fishing restrictions ranging from severe curtailment to complete closures in recent years may be providing an increase in adult salmon and steelhead spawners in some streams, but trends cannot be established from the existing data.

Although currently no coho salmon may be legally retained in either marine or freshwater in California, CDFG port samplers routinely observe coho salmon retained from the ocean by recreational fisherman who either did not know the regulations or were not able to discern coho salmon from Chinook salmon. It is unlikely that steelhead were affected by ocean commercial or recreational fisheries, but freshwater recreational fishing for steelhead is a popular activity and may have intermittently reduced spawner abundance. However, coho salmon and steelhead populations have not rebounded since commercial and recreational fisheries have been curtailed to protect them.

i. Hatcheries

The use of state-funded fish hatcheries in California dates back to 1870. These facilities have been providing fish, predominantly salmon and trout, for sport and commercial fishing, for restoration, and for mitigation. There is concern that hatchery supplementation has resulted in major negative impacts to salmonids including loss of genetic diversity, displacement of native stocks, and disease **transfer** (Nehlsen *et al.* 1991, Higgins *et al.* 1992, Cramer *et al.* 1995). The loss of genetic diversity through selective breeding, inbreeding and interbreeding concerns many fish biologists as this can compromise the ability of both wild and hatchery fish to adapt to environmental change (Weitkamp *et al.* 1995). Hatchery stocks are generally less fit for survival in streams than wild fish (Hillborn 1992). Hatchery stocks are often less successful at locating spawning gravels, avoiding predators, or finding natural food. Studies have found that subsequent generations of hatchery fish have a considerably lower survival rate than those of wild fish (Smith *et al.* 1985).

j. Ocean Conditions

An environmental condition often cited as a cause for the decline of west coast salmonids is the condition known as “**El Niño**” El Niño is a warming of the Pacific Ocean off South America and is caused by atmospheric changes in the tropical Pacific Ocean. During an El Nino event, a plume of warm sea water flows from west to east toward South America, eventually reaching the coast where it is reflected south and north along the continents. El Niño ocean conditions are characterized by anomalously warm sea surface temperature and changes in thermal structure, coastal currents, and upwelling. Principal ecosystem alterations include decreases in primary and secondary productivity and changes in prey and predator species distributions. Several El Niño events have been recorded during the last several decades, including those of 1940–41, 1957–58, 1982–83, 1986–87, 1991–92, 1993–94, and 1997–98. Johnson (1988) noted increased adult mortality and decreased average size for **Oregon’s** Chinook and coho salmon during the strong 1982–83 El Niño. It is unclear to what extent ocean conditions have played a role in the decline of anadromous salmonids within the action area however, ocean conditions have likely affected populations throughout their evolutionary history.

k. Predation

Salmonids may be more vulnerable to predation by freshwater, **avian**, and marine predators with habitat modifications including the decrease in avoidance habitat such as deep pools, estuaries, and undercut banks. A decrease in water quantity and quality and adequate migration and rearing flows can also add to increased predation. While harbor seal and California sea lion numbers have increased along the Pacific Coast, their impact on salmonid populations appears to be minimal. For example, at the mouth of the Russian River, Hanson (1993) reported that the foraging behavior of California sea lions and harbor seals with respect to anadromous salmonids was negligible. Avian predators have been shown to impact some juvenile salmonids in fresh water and near shore environments. Ring-billed gulls (*Lams delawarensis*) consumed a small percent of the salmon and steelhead trout passing **Wanapum** Dam, in the Columbia River, during the spring **smolt outmigration** in 1982. Herons, cormorants, and alcids are known to prey on salmonids in the near shore marine environment. Piscivorous predators may have some influence on the abundance and survival of salmonids. **Pearcy** (1992) reviewed several studies of salmonids off the Pacific Northwest coastline and concluded that salmonid survival was influenced by the factional responses of the predators to salmonids and alternative prey.

The relative impacts of marine predation on anadromous salmonids are not well understood. Predators play an important role in the ecosystem, culling out unfit individuals, thereby strengthening the species as a whole. The increased impact of certain predators has been to a large degree the result of ecosystem modification. Predators may retard restoration or further exacerbate anthropogenic impacts. For example, diversion of stream flow for irrigation may affect the opening of sandbars at the mouths of creeks thereby altering the timing of adult spawning migrations and disposing fish to higher levels of marine mammal predation.

l. Natural Stochastic Events

Natural events, such as floods have depressed salmonid population numbers when these events occur. These species have persisted for thousands of years with these impacts. However, the more recent anthropogenic destruction and degradation of essential freshwater habitats have reduced the resiliency of salmonid populations to natural disturbances.

Floods can destroy or alter stream and lagoon habitats, accelerate erosion and sedimentation, and decimate eggs, fry and juvenile salmon populations, thus reducing or eliminating year classes (Anderson 1995). As previously mentioned, sedimentation of stream beds has been implicated as a principal cause of declining salmonid populations throughout their range. Floods can result in mass wasting of erodible hill slopes and failure of roads on unstable slopes causing catastrophic erosion. In addition, flooding can cause scour and redeposition of spawning gravels in typically inaccessible areas. During flood events, land disturbances resulting from logging, road construction, mining, urbanization, livestock grazing, agriculture, fire, and other uses may contribute sediment directly to streams or exacerbate sedimentation from natural erosive processes (California Advisory Committee on Salmon and Steelhead Trout 1988, California State Lands Commission 1993, Forest Ecosystem Management Assessment Team 1993).

m. Research Activities

Most biological opinions NOAA Fisheries issues recommend specific monitoring, evaluation, and research efforts intended to help gather information that would be used to increase the survival of affected listed fish. In addition, NOAA Fisheries has issued numerous research permits authorizing takes of ESA-listed fish over the last few years. Authorization for take by itself would not lead to decline of the species because NOAA Fisheries carefully evaluates each research permit and the combined effects of all previous permits and other activities on listed ESUs. However, the sum of the authorized takes indicate a potentially high level of research effort within the action area. In general, permit holders and applicants provide NOAA Fisheries with high take estimates to compensate for potential inseason changes in research protocols, accidental catastrophic events, and the annual variability in listed fish numbers. Also, most research projects depend on annual funding and the availability of other resources. So, a specific research project, for which take of ESA-listed species is authorized by a permit, may be suspended in a year when funding or resources are not available. As a result, the *actual* take in a given year for most research projects, as provided to NOAA Fisheries in post-season annual reports, is usually less than the authorized level of take in the permits and the related NOAA Fisheries consultation on the issuance of those permits.

Despite the fact that fish are harassed and even killed in the course of scientific research, only a small fraction of available habitat is sampled; therefore, only a small proportion of the total population is subject to sampling and the loss to the total population is small (McMichael *et al.* 1998). While threats to listed species vary among sites and populations, altered habitat and water

regimes and exotic species are the primary factors affecting native fish fauna (Richter *et al.* 1997, Wilcove *et al.* 1998).

Research activities have a great potential to benefit ESA-listed salmon and steelhead. For example, permitted scientific research can provide data useful for the management and recovery of listed species. Aside from simply increasing what is known about the listed species and their biological requirements, research is essentially the only way to answer key questions associated with difficult resource issues that involve every salmonid life history stage. Further, there is no way to tell if the corrective measures described in the previous sections are working unless they are monitored and no way to design new and better corrective measures if research is not done. The information gained during research and monitoring activities will help resource managers recover listed species. The annual **reauthorization** of any section 10(a)(1)(A) permit is contingent upon receipt and approval of an annual report containing data on the preceding reporting period's research activities, a description of accomplished research activities, and a description of activities proposed for the forthcoming reporting period. In addition, all permit holders must submit a final report within ninety (90) days of the expiration of their permit summarizing the results of the research and the success of the research relative to its goals.

NOAA Fisheries does not consider scientific research and monitoring efforts (unlike the other factors described in the previous sections) to be a factor contributing to the decline of anadromous salmonids within the action area, and NOAA Fisheries believes that the information derived from the research activities is essential to their survival and recovery. Nonetheless, fish *are* harmed during research activities. And activities that are carried out in a careless or undirected fashion are not likely to benefit the species at all. Therefore, to minimize any harm arising from research activities on the species, NOAA Fisheries imposes conditions in its permits so that permit holders conduct their activities in such a way as to reduce adverse **effects—particularly** killing as few salmonids as possible. Also, researchers are encouraged to use nonlisted fish species and hatchery fish instead of listed naturally-produced fish when possible. In addition, researchers are required to share fish samples, as well as the results of the scientific research, with other researchers and **comanagers** in the region as a way to avoid duplicative research efforts and to acquire as much information as possible from the ESA-listed fish sampled. NOAA Fisheries also works with other agencies to coordinate research and thereby prevent duplication of **effort**.

n. Habitat Restoration

Restoration activities may cause temporary increases in turbidity and alter channel dynamics and stability (Habersack and Nachtnebel 1995, Hilderbrand *et al.* 1997, Powell 1997, Hilderbrand *et al.* 1998); these effects may temporarily stress salmonids. Misguided restoration efforts often fail to produce the intended benefits and can even result in further habitat degradation. Improperly constructed projects typically cause greater adverse effects than the pre-existing condition. The most common reason for this is improper identification of the design flow for the existing channel conditions. However, properly constructed stream restoration projects may

increase available habitat, habitat complexity, stabilize channels and **streambanks**, increase spawning gravels, decrease sedimentation, and increase shade and cover for salmonids. The CDFG has produced a manual for stream restoration projects in California (see CDFG 1998a) providing guidance to maximize benefit to salmonids while minimizing risks. The negative effects of habitat restoration activities on anadromous **salmonid** populations in coastal streams within the action area are probably temporary and minor. Overall, habitat restoration **projects** are considered to be beneficial to the restoration and recovery of at risk populations.

Since 1996, the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration Restoration Center has provided \$839,602, through cooperative agreements, for 41 restoration projects in coastal drainages. Types of projects funded include: fish migration barrier removal, fish migration barrier passage, riparian restoration and corridor fencing, salt marsh restoration, oyster reef habitat restoration, and road upgrade and decommissioning. Also, CDFG, other government entities, and private foundations have funded these and other types of restoration activities.

2. Central Valley Streams

The main risk factors that salmonids face in Central Valley streams include loss of a large portion of historic spawning habitats and degradation of remaining habitat, including migration corridors. CVSR Chinook salmon additionally face threats to their genetic integrity of the remaining wild spring-run Chinook populations from the Feather River Hatchery spring-run Chinook salmon program. CV steelhead also have a substantial opportunity for deleterious interactions with hatchery fish and have experienced a decline in the proportion of wild fish in spawning runs (NOAA Fisheries 2003).

California's robust agricultural economy and the state's rapidly increasing urban growth place high demand for water in the Sacramento and San Joaquin River basins. The demand for water in the Central Valley has significantly altered the natural morphology and hydrology of the Sacramento and San Joaquin Rivers and their major tributaries. Agricultural lands and urban areas have flourished on historic **floodplains**. An extensive flood management system of dams, levees, and bypass channels restricts the river's natural **sinuosity**, volume, and reduces the lag time of water flowing through the system. An impressive network of water delivery systems have transformed the Central Valley drainage system into a series of lined conveyance channels and reservoirs that are operated by several pumping facilities. Flood management and water delivery systems, in addition to agricultural, grazing, and urban land uses, are the main anthropogenic factors affecting watersheds in the action area.

A number of documents have addressed the history of human activities, present environmental conditions, and factors contributing to the decline of salmon and steelhead species in the Central Valley (e.g., Busby *et al.* 1996, Myers *et al.* 1998, U.S. Department of the Interior 1999, CALFED Bay-Delta Program 2000). The foremost reason for the decline in these anadromous salmonid populations is the degradation **and/or** destruction of habitat (e.g., substrate, water quality, water quantity, water temperature, water velocity, shelter, food, riparian vegetation, and

migration conditions). Additional factors contributing to the decline of these populations **include:** commercial and recreational harvest, ocean conditions, predation, natural stochastic events, **hydrographs**, water quality and water quantity. Scientific research and habitat restoration activities may affect anadromous salmonid populations within the action area, but have not been specifically identified as factors contributing to the decline of these populations.

For the purposes of this document, a general description of the environmental baseline for CVSR Chinook salmon and CV steelhead is based on, in part, a summary provided in U.S. Department of the Interior (1999) and CALFED Bay-Delta Program (2000). In general, the human activities that have affected listed Central Valley anadromous salmonids and their habitats are: (1) dam construction that blocks previously accessible habitat; (2) water development activities that affect water quantity, water quality, and hydrographs; (3) land use activities such as agriculture, flood control, urban development, mining, and logging; (4) hatchery operation and practices; (5) harvest activities; (6) ecosystem restoration actions; (7) natural conditions; and (8) scientific research.

a. Habitat Blockage

Hydropower, flood control, and water supply dams of the Central Valley Project (CVP), State Water Project (SWP), and other municipal and private entities have permanently blocked or hindered salmonid access to historical spawning and rearing grounds. In general, large dams on every major tributary to the Sacramento River, San Joaquin River, and Delta block salmon and steelhead access to the upper portions of the respective watersheds. Clark (1929) estimated that originally there were 6,000 miles of salmon habitat in the Central Valley system and that 80 percent of this habitat had been lost by 1928. Yoshiyama *et al.* (1996) calculated that roughly 2,000 miles of salmon habitat was actually available before dam construction and mining, and concluded that 82 percent is not accessible today. Clark (1929) did not give details about his calculation. Whether Clark's or Yoshiyama's calculation is used, only remnants of their former range remain accessible today in the Central Valley (CDFG 1998b).

b. Water Development Activities

Water development in the Central Valley has altered historical flow patterns in the Central Valley. Historical seasonal flow patterns included high flood flows in the winter and spring with declining flows throughout the summer and early fall. However, dams and diversion structures have dampened seasonal hydrographs and reduced the natural variability and quantity of **streamflows** throughout the year. The resulting changes to the seasonal hydrographs affect the timing of juvenile **outmigration** which are associated with flow surges. Furthermore, year round uniform flows result in diminished natural channel formations, altered foodweb processes, and regeneration of riparian vegetation. These changes to the stream channel have consequently altered and reduced salmonid habitat.

Water impoundment in upstream reservoirs reduces flows and dampens the magnitude and duration of peak flows during winter and spring. Reduced flows have contributed to higher temperatures, lower dissolved oxygen levels, and decreased recruitment of gravel and large woody debris. **Instream** flows during the summer and early fall months have increased over historic levels for deliveries of municipal and agricultural water supplies.

Water diversions for irrigated agriculture, municipal and industrial use, and managed wetlands are found throughout the Central Valley. Hundreds of small and medium size water diversions exist along the Sacramento River, San Joaquin River, and their tributaries. Although efforts have been made in recent years to screen some of these diversions, many remain unscreened. Depending on the size, location, and season of operation, these unscreened intakes entrain and kill many life stages of aquatic species, including juvenile salmonids. For example, as of 1997, 98.5 percent of the 3,356 diversions mapped in a Geographical Information System in the Central Valley were either unscreened or screened insufficiently to prevent fish **entrainment** (Herren and Kawasaki 2001).

c. Land Use Activities

Until about **150** years ago, the Sacramento River was bordered by up to 500,000 acres of riparian forest, with bands of vegetation spreading four to five miles (California Resources Agency 1989). By 1979, riparian habitat along the Sacramento River diminished to **11,000-12,000** acres or about 2 percent of historic levels (McGill 1979). More recently, about 16,000 acres of remaining riparian vegetation has been reported (McGill 1987). The degradation and fragmentation of riparian habitat has resulted mainly from flood control and bank protection projects, together with the conversion of riparian land to agriculture (Jones and Stokes Associates, Incorporated 1993).

Increased sedimentation resulting from agricultural and urban practices within the Central Valley is a primary cause of salmonid habitat degradation. Sedimentation can adversely affect salmonids during all freshwater life stages by: clogging, or abrading gill surfaces; adhering to eggs; inducing behavioral modifications; burying eggs or alevins; scouring and filling pools and riffles; reducing primary productivity and **photosynthetic** activity; and affecting **intergravel** permeability and dissolved oxygen levels. Embedded substrates can reduce the production of juvenile salmonids and hinder the ability of some over-wintering juveniles to hide in gravel during high flow events.

Land use activities associated with road construction, urban development, logging, mining, agriculture, and recreation have significantly altered fish habitat quantity and quality through alteration of **streambank** and channel morphology; alteration of ambient stream water temperatures; degradation of water quality; elimination of spawning and rearing habitat; fragmentation of available habitats; elimination of downstream recruitment of gravel and large woody debris; and removal of riparian vegetation resulting in increased streambank erosion. Agricultural practices have eliminated large trees and logs and other woody debris that would

have been otherwise recruited to the stream channel. Large woody debris influences stream morphology by affecting pool formation, channel pattern and position, and channel geometry.

Historically in the Delta, tidal marshes provided a highly productive **estuarine** environment for juvenile anadromous salmonids. During the course of their downstream migration, juvenile winter-run Chinook salmon, spring-run Chinook salmon, and steelhead use the Delta's estuarine habitat for seasonal rearing, and as a migration corridor to the sea. Since the 1850's, reclamation of Delta islands for agricultural purposes caused the cumulative loss of 94 percent of the Delta's tidal marshes (Association for Bay Area Governments 1992).

In addition to the degradation and loss of estuarine habitat, downstream migrant juvenile salmon in the Delta have been **subject** to adverse conditions created by water export operations of the CVP and SWP. Specifically, juvenile salmon have been adversely affected by: (1) water diversion from the mainstem Sacramento River into the Central Delta via the **manmade** Delta Cross Channel; (2) upstream or reverse flows of water in the lower San Joaquin River and southern Delta waterways; and (3) entrainment and mortality at the CVP/SWP export facilities and associated problems at Clifton Court Forebay. Juvenile salmonids are exposed to increased water temperatures in the Delta during the late spring and summer due to the loss of riparian shading, and by thermal inputs from municipal, industrial, and agricultural discharges.

d. Hatchery Operation and Practices

Five hatcheries currently produce Chinook salmon in the Central Valley and four of these also produce steelhead. Releasing large numbers of hatchery fish can pose a threat to wild Chinook salmon and steelhead stocks through genetic impacts, competition for food and other resources between hatchery and wild fish, predation of hatchery fish on wild fish, and increased fishing pressure on wild stocks as a result of hatchery production (Waples 1991). The genetic impacts of artificial propagation programs in the Central Valley are primarily caused by the straying of hatchery fish and the subsequent hybridization of hatchery and wild fish. In the Central Valley, practices such as trucking smolts to distant sites for release and the transferring of eggs between hatcheries contribute to elevated straying levels (U.S. Department of the Interior 1999).

e. Harvest

The ocean salmon fisheries in the exclusive economic zone off Washington, Oregon, and California are managed by NOAA Fisheries under authority of the **Magnuson-Stevens** Fishery Conservation and Management Act. Management measures are developed according to the Pacific Coast Salmon Plan (FMP) and implemented by NOAA Fisheries if they are found to be consistent with the Magnuson-Stevens Act and other applicable law, including the **ESA**. The Secretary of Commerce, acting through NOAA Fisheries, has the ultimate authority for the FMP and its implementation; NOAA Fisheries is therefore both the action agency and the consulting agency in the section 7 consultation required under the ESA, and NOAA Fisheries issues the associated incidental take permit to itself.

Ocean salmon fisheries off California are managed to meet the conservation objectives for certain stocks of salmon listed in the FMP, including any stock that is listed as threatened or endangered under the ESA. FMP objectives exist for some ESA listed stocks, but for others, including Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, the FMP **objective** is the Reasonable and Prudent Alternative of NOAA Fisheries' biological opinion on implementation of the FMP. Through a series of section 7 consultations on ocean fisheries managed under the FMP (NOAA Fisheries 1996, 1997b, 2000, 2002a), NOAA Fisheries has taken measures to reduce the impacts of commercial and recreational fisheries on Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon and Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon to levels that are consistent with recovery of the populations.

To address potential incidental take of Chinook salmon that occurs in the recreational trout fishery, the California Fish and Game Commission adopted in 1992 gear restrictions (all hooks must be **barbless** and a maximum 5.7 cm in length) to minimize hooking injury and mortality caused by trout anglers incidentally catching winter-run Chinook salmon. Specific regulations for the protection of spring-run Chinook salmon in Mill, Deer, Big Chico, and Butte Creeks were added to the existing CDFG regulations in 1994. Existing regulations, including those developed for winter-run Chinook salmon provide some level of protection for spring-run fish (CDFG 1998b).

There is no commercial harvest of Central Valley steelhead. All wild steelhead caught in California must be released unharmed except in the Smith River (CDFG 2003a). Limited information exists on steelhead recreational harvest rates in California.

/ Ecosystem Restoration

Significant steps towards the largest ecological restoration project yet undertaken in the United States have occurred during the past several years and continue to proceed in California's Central Valley. The CALFED Bay-Delta Program, in coordination with other Central Valley efforts including those implemented through the Central Valley **Project** Improvement Act, has implemented numerous habitat restoration actions that benefit Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, Central Valley steelhead, and critical habitat for Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon. These restoration actions include the installation of **fish** screens, modification of barriers to improve fish passage, and habitat acquisition and restoration. The majority of these recent restoration actions address key factors for decline of these ESUs and emphasis has been placed in tributary drainages with high potential for spring-run Chinook salmon, and steelhead production. Additional actions that are currently underway that benefit Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon, and Central Valley steelhead include new efforts to enhance fisheries monitoring and conservation actions to address artificial propagation.

A beneficial action unrelated to the CALFED Program includes the Environmental Protection Agency's remedial actions at Iron Mountain Mine. The completion of a state-of-the-art lime

neutralization plant is successfully removing significant concentrations of toxic metals in acidic mine drainage from the Spring Creek Watershed. Containment loading into the upper Sacramento River from Iron Mountain Mine has shown measurable reductions since the early 1990's.

g. Natural Conditions

Natural changes in the freshwater and marine environments play a major role in salmonid abundance. Recent evidence suggests that marine survival among salmonids fluctuates in response to 20- to 30-year cycles of climatic conditions and ocean productivity (Hare *et al.* 1999, Mantua and Hare 2002). This phenomenon has been referred to as the Pacific Decadal Oscillation. In addition, large-scale climatic regime shifts, such as El Nino, appear to change ocean productivity. During the first part of the 1990's, much of the Pacific Coast was subject to a series of very dry years.

A key factor affecting many West Coast stocks has been a general 30-year decline in ocean productivity. The mechanism whereby stocks are affected is not well understood, partially because the pattern of response to these changing ocean conditions has differed among stocks, presumably due to differences in their ocean timing and distribution. It is presumed that survival is driven largely by events occurring between ocean entry and recruitment to a subadult life stage. One indicator of early ocean survival can be computed as a ratio of coded-wire tag (CWT) recoveries from subadults relative to the number of CWTs released from that brood year.

Salmon and steelhead are exposed to high rates of natural predation, particularly during freshwater rearing and migration stages. Ocean predation may also contribute to significant natural mortality, although it is not known to what degree. In general, salmonids are prey for pelagic fishes, birds, and marine mammals, including harbor seals, sea lions, and killer whales. There have been recent concerns that the rebound of seal and sea lion populations—following their protection under the Marine Mammal Protection Act of 1972—has caused a number of salmonid deaths.

Finally, it should be noted that the unusual drought conditions in 2001 warrant additional consideration. Flows in 2001 were among the lowest flow conditions on record. The available water in the Sacramento watershed and San Joaquin watershed was 70 percent and 66 percent of normal, according to the Sacramento River Index and the San Joaquin River Index, respectively. The juveniles that passed downriver during the 2001 spring and summer out-migration likely were affected and this, in turn, may affect adult returns primarily in 2003 and 2004, depending on the stock and species. At this time, it is impossible to ascertain what those effects will be, but NOAA Fisheries is monitoring the situation and will take the drought condition into account in management decisions, including amending take authorizations and other permit conditions as needed.

h. Scientific Research

Please see discussion on research activities described in the coastal section above.

V. EFFECTS OF THE PROPOSED ACTION

The purpose of this section is to identify effects on ESA-listed salmonids resulting from NOAA Fisheries proposal to limit ESA take prohibitions (under the authority of section 4(d) of the ESA) for juvenile and adult salmonids taken in CDFG's research program. Detailed descriptions of the 78 projects including the sampling location, time, and frequency, and amount and type of take activity estimated to result from a **project** are provided in Table 3.

Several sampling techniques will be used by the 78 projects in CDFG's Program. Common techniques used in fisheries research and the potential effects they have on **ESA-listed** salmonids are described below. The effects of projects with the greatest potential for impacting the likelihood of survival and recovery of a population, and a summary of the effects of the Program as a whole is then provided.

A. Effects Associated with Direct Observation

Provided that visibility and other conditions are sufficient, direct observation is used to gather important data on habitat utilization, behavior, distribution, and for estimating population size and structure. Direct observation can entail walking the side of the water body, or underwater observation techniques such as snorkeling, scuba diving, and video photography. Observing fish by walking the side of the water body is done only on small bodies of water or the littoral zones of large bodies of water. Underwater observation is most frequently used in small lakes, streams, and tidepools, however, can be undertaken efficiently in large, deep water bodies (e.g., oceans, rivers, and reservoirs) provided that conditions are adequate (**Dolloff et al. 1996**). Turbidity, turbulence, target species behavior, habitat structure and complexity, hydrology, ambient light, and, perhaps, weather affect the efficiency of direct observation.

Another type of direct observation involves spawning surveys. In these surveys the observer walks directly in the stream during spawning season, as close to the edge as possible, locating redds and carcasses. These surveys usually involve the concurrent observation and notation of spawning salmonids as well. Salmonid carcasses are measured, the sex is determined, and scale and tissue samples are usually collected. Redds are usually flagged and the locations recorded. One of the effects of this type of survey is the possible disturbance of redds if the observer accidentally steps on one. If spawning **salmonids** are present during these surveys then the fish can be unintentionally frightened off by the observer, disrupting their spawning activities or their effort to guard the redd after spawning.

Direct observation is the least intrusive method for determining presence/absence of the species and estimating their relative abundance. Effects of direct observation are generally the shortest-lived among any of the research activities discussed in this section. **Videography** should induce no effects on ESA-listed fish. Using other forms of direct observations, a cautious observer can effectively obtain data without disrupting the normal behavior of a fish.

There is no evidence that fish are injured by direct observations. Observations made by State and Federal fishery biologists counting Chinook salmon and steelhead in Central Valley streams indicate that direct observation does not cause any behavioral effects that prevent salmon and steelhead from successfully holding, spawning, or feeding (Paul Ward, CDFG, personal communication 2002, Sarah **Giovannetti**, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, personal communication 2003). Snorkeling surveys may frighten adult and juvenile spring-run Chinook salmon and steelhead, which may cause the fish to seek temporary refuge behind rocks, vegetation, and deep water areas. Frightened juveniles return to feeding habitats, and adults return to holding and spawning habitats within seconds after the observer passes through the habitat unit. In some cases, salmon may temporarily leave the particular pool or habitat type when observers are in their area. Adult mortalities do not occur because snorkel encounters with Chinook salmon are brief and do not involve any physical contact. Researchers minimize the amount of disturbance by limiting the number of times that each habitat unit is snorkeled and by moving through areas deliberately and without unnecessary, abrupt, or erratic body movements.

B. Effects Associated with General Capture and Handling

Capturing and handling fish causes them stress, though they typically recover fairly rapidly from the process and, therefore, the overall effects of the handling are generally short-lived. The primary contributing factors to stress and death from handling are excessive doses of anesthetic, differences in water temperatures (between the original habitat and the container in which the fish are held), dissolved oxygen conditions, the amount of time that fish are held out of the water, and physical trauma (**Kelsch and Shields 1996**). Stress on salmonids increases rapidly from handling if the water temperature exceeds 18 °C or dissolved oxygen is below saturation. Fish that are transferred to holding tanks can experience trauma if care is not taken in the transfer process. In addition, when fish are handled by samplers to obtain measurements and other data, it is not uncommon for fish to be dropped on the ground by the handlers because the fish are not sedated enough or properly restrained. This can result in internal injuries, especially in females with developing ovaries (**Stickney 1983**). An injured fish is more susceptible to developing diseases, which can lead to delayed mortality. Some of the injuries which can lead to disease are the loss of mucus, loss of scales, damage to integument and internal damage (Stickney 1983, Kelsch and Shields 1996). In addition to the risks associated with handling, all fish handled will be exposed to additional risks specific to the various methods of capture described in the following subsection.

C. Collection Gear Specific Effects

Following are brief descriptions of effects of different capture methods and their associated collection gears. More detailed descriptions can be found in Nielsen and Johnson (1983) and Murphy and Willis (1996). Limited information exists on the injury and mortality rates to fish resulting from the capture methods described below.

1. Tagging and Marking

The use of passive integrated transponder (PIT) tags, coded wire tags (CWT), fin-clips, and **biotelemetry** transmitters are common to many scientific research efforts using ESA-listed species. Some tags or marks allow biologists to identify groups of fish (e.g., hatchery-produced fish or test fish) and some allow for the identification of individual fish. All sampling, handling, and tagging procedures have an inherent potential to stress, injure, or even kill the marked fish.

a. *PIT Tags*

A PIT tag is an electronic device that relays signals to a receiver; it allows individual fish to be identified whenever they pass a location containing such a receiver (e.g., some fish ladders) without researchers having to handle the fish. The tag is inserted into the body cavity of the fish using a modified hypodermic needle, typically, just in front of the pelvic girdle. The insertion of PIT tags requires that the fish be captured and extensively handled, therefore the fish can be affected by any or all of the associated risks mentioned in the section on capture and handling methods. PIT tags have very little effect on growth, survival, swimming speed, stamina, or behavior (Jenkins and Smith 1990, Prentice *et al.* 1990, Prentice *et al.* 1994). Mortalities associated with PIT tags have been found to be less than 1 percent (Dare 2003).

b. *Coded Wire Tags*

Coded wire tags are made of magnetized, stainless-steel wire. They bear distinctive notches that can be coded for such data as species, brood year, and hatchery of origin (Nielsen 1992). The tags are intended to remain within the animal indefinitely, consequently making them ideal for long-term, population-level assessments of Pacific salmon. In salmon, CWTs are injected into the nasal cartilage and, therefore, cause little direct tissue damage (Bergman *et al.* 1968). A major advantage to using CWTs is that external and internal tissue damage from the tag and injections heals rapidly and is minor (Bergman *et al.* 1968, Fletcher *et al.* 1987, Buckley and Blankenship 1990). In order for researchers to be able to determine later (after the initial tagging) which fish possess CWTs, it is necessary to mark the fish **externally**—usually by clipping the adipose fin—when the CWT is implanted (see text below for information on fin clipping). One major disadvantage to recovering data from CWTs is that the fish must be killed in order for the tag to be removed. However, this is not a significant problem for the salmonid population because researchers generally recover CWTs from salmon that have been taken during the course of commercial and recreational harvest, or post-spawning carcass surveys.

c. Biotelemetry Tags

Biotelemetry tags (or radio tags) are implanted transmitters which allow one to identify and follow an individual fish continuously and remotely and to gather information on migration and habitat utilization. There are two main ways to implant a tag and they differ in both their characteristics and consequences. The first method of implanting a tag is to slip it into the fish's stomach through the esophagus. Stomach insertion does not cause a wound and does not interfere with swimming. This technique is benign when salmon are in the portion of their spawning migrations during which they do not feed (Nielsen 1992). In addition, for short-term studies, stomach tags allow faster post-tagging recovery and interfere less with normal behavior than do tags attached in other ways. A second common method for implanting a tag is to surgically implant the tag within the body cavity. These tags generally do not interfere with feeding or movement, though the size of the tag and fish do influence effects. However, the surgical procedure is difficult, requiring considerable experience and equipment (Summerfelt and Smith 1990, Nielsen 1992). Because the tag is placed within the body cavity, the tag may injure a fish's internal organs. An improperly positioned incision may cause serious injury to the fish. Also, infections of the sutured incision and the body cavity itself are also possible, especially if the tag and incision are not treated with antibiotics (Chisholm and Hubert 1985, Mellas and Haynes 1985, Summerfelt and Smith 1990). Fish with internal radio tags often die at higher rates than fish tagged by other means because radio tagging is a complicated and stressful process. Mortality is both acute (occurring during or soon after tagging) and delayed (occurring long after the fish have been released into the environment). Acute mortality is caused by trauma induced during capture, tagging, and release. It can be reduced by handling fish as gently as possible. Delayed mortality occurs if the tag or the tagging procedure harms the animal in direct or subtle ways. Tags may cause wounds that do not heal properly, may make swimming more difficult, or may make tagged animals more vulnerable to predation (Howe and Hoyt 1982, Matthews and Reavis 1990, Moring 1990). Tagging may also reduce fish growth by increasing the energetic costs of swimming and maintaining balance. Radio tag mortalities for gastric and surgically implanted tags is 2-3 percent (Adams *et al.* 1998). Only one project in the Program proposes to use radio tags as part of its activities. Based on expected captures in this project, NOAA Fisheries anticipates that one adult NC steelhead may die during project implementation.

d. Fin Clipping

Fin clipping is the process of removing part or all of one or more fins to alter a fish's appearance and thus make it identifiable. When entire fins are removed, it is expected that they will never grow back. Alternatively, a permanent mark can be made when only a part of the fin is removed or the end of a fin or a few fin rays are clipped. Although researchers have used all fins for marking at one time or another, the current preference is to clip the adipose, pelvic, or pectoral fins.

Many studies have examined the effects of fin clips on fish growth, survival, and behavior. The results of these studies are somewhat variable; however, it appears that fin clips do not generally

alter fish growth. Moreover, wounds caused by fin clipping usually heal quickly, especially those caused by partial clips. Mortality among fin-clipped fish is also variable (Duke 1986). Some immediate mortality may occur during the process, especially if fish have been handled extensively for other purposes (e.g., stomach sampling). Mortality depends on species and ambient conditions. Also, small fishes are more sensitive to handling; Coble (1967) suggested that fish shorter than 90 mm are at particular risk. The degree of mortality among individual fishes also depends on which fin is clipped. Mortality is generally higher when the major median and pectoral fins are clipped. By convention, an adipose mark has significance in California and implies that a fish has been implanted with a coded-wire tag. The main risk to fish, therefore, would likely result from initial capture and handling to clip the fin.

2. Hoop Nets

Hoop nets are cylindrical or conical nets that are distended by a series of hoops or frames covered by web netting. A hoop net has one or more internal funnel shaped throats that are directed inward from the mouth of the net. The throats direct and trap the fish in the back end (codend) of the net. The net is held in place by ropes, weights, or stakes. Hoop nets are typically used in lakes and reservoirs, but are sometime used in river habitats. To increase capture efficiency of highly migratory fish, some hoop nets are set with “wings” of netting attached to the mouth of the net. The wings intercept migrating fish and direct them into the mouth of the net. Typically, fish are removed from hoop nets by scooping the fish out of the internal compartments using a dip net. Hoop nets are most effective for species that are attracted to cover, or other fish, or that are intercepted by the wings. Net construction (size and materials) and placement influence efficiency of hoop nets. Fish captured with hoop nets are generally captured unharmed, though there are some risks associated with hoop nets: small fish can be “gilled” in the netting, captured fish are subject to crowding and in-net predation from other fish, or injury by removal of the fish by dip net.

3. Seines

A seine is a net that traps fish by encircling them with a long wall of webbing. Typically, the top edge of a seine has floats, the bottom edge is weighted, and the seine has a brail (wooden pole) on each end. As the net is closed the fish become concentrated in the net. Seines are usually large enough that they are fished by two or more people, though can be small enough to be fished by one person. Generally, seines are set in an arc around the targeted fish and then dragged to shore. Seines are effective for sampling littoral areas of lentic habitats. In lotic habitats, seines are most easily used in areas of low velocity, but can be used in high velocity areas if the brails are held in place while someone approaches the net from upstream, herding fish into the net. To be most effective, a seine needs to be deployed quickly enough that the target species cannot escape the encircling net. Accordingly, habitat structure and complexity negatively influence seine efficiency by reducing the speed at which one deploys a seine and by offering escape cover. Small fish can be gilled in the mesh of a seine. Scales and dermal mucus can be abraded by contacting the net. Fish can be suffocated if they are not quickly removed from the net after the

net is removed from the water to process the fish. Also, the fish can be crushed by the handler when removing the net from the water.

4. Trawls

Trawls are cone-shaped, mesh nets that are towed, typically, along **benthic** habitat (Hayes 1983, Hayes *et al.* 1996). Rectangular doors, attached to the towing cables, keep the mouth of the trawl open. Most trawls are towed behind a boat, but small trawls can be operated by hand. As fish enter the trawl, they tire and fall to the codend of the trawl. Mortality and injury rates associated with trawls can be high, particularly for small or fragile fish. Fish can be crushed by debris or other fish caught in the net. Depending on mesh size, some small fish are able to escape the trawl through the netting. However, not all fish that escape the trawl are uninjured, as fish may be damaged while passing through the netting. Short duration trawl hauls (5 to 10 minutes maximum) may reduce injuries (Hayes 1983, Stickney 1983, Hayes *et al.* 1996).

5. Hook and Line

The use of hook and line (angling) is typically associated with recreational or commercial fishing, but can be used for collecting research samples (Hayes *et al.* 1996). Angling can target specific species or size of fish. Angling has been used in scientific studies for a variety of research activities including conducting **radiotelemetry** studies, studies of fish genetics, fish mortality and fish population structure and abundance. Another form of hook and line capture is a trotline. A **trotline** has a main line strung horizontally with short vertical lines (drop lines) attached to it (Hubert 1996). Each of the vertical lines has a baited hook attached to it. Trotlines are used frequently in warmwater inland fisheries and are generally used to capture catfish or common carp. Hook and line captures exercise size selectivity and extreme variability in catch rates. Injuries related to hook and line capture are influenced by hook size and type, bait or lure choice, and species behavior. Common hook and line injuries include damage to the skeletal structure of the mouth, injury to gills, and secondary infections. Fish may be additionally stressed from handling, especially if the fish is kept out of the water before it is released. Mortality resulting from hook and line capture and release averaged 7.5 percent with wound location and bleeding as primary factors associated with mortality; most mortalities occurred within 72 hours of release (Bendock and Alexandersdottir 1993).

6. Electrofishing

Electrofishing is a process by which an electrical current is passed through water in order to stun fish and facilitate capture. It can also be used to guide or block their movements. There are three general systems for electrofishing related to where the electrical generator is maintained: backpack, boat, and shore. Backpack electrofishing is the most common system used for salmonids. Boat and shore electrofishing units often use more current than backpack electrofishing equipment because they are used to cover larger (and deeper) areas and, as a result,

potentially have a greater impact on fish. This biological opinion considers only backpack electrofishing.

Two or three technicians work together while backpack electrofishing. One person carries the backpack and searches the target habitats with the anode, while one or two others net stunned fish. Operators work in teams to increase the number of fish that may be seen or captured. Working in teams also allows the researcher to net fish before they are subjected to higher electrical fields.

The use of electricity to capture fish is one of the most intrusive and risky methods. This method of capture can result in a variety of effects from simple harassment to injury to the fish (adults and juveniles) and death. There are two major forms of injuries from electrofishing; hemorrhages in soft tissues and fractures in hard tissues. Only a few recent studies have examined the long-term effects of electrofishing on salmonid survival and growth (Dalbey *et al.* 1996, Ainslie *et al.* 1998). These studies indicate that although some of the fish suffer spinal injury, few die as a result. Dalbey *et al.* (1996), reports that the growth of rainbow trout was markedly lower when there was moderate to severe electrofisher induced spinal injury. Electrofishing can also result in trauma to fish from stress. The stress caused by electrofishing is usually not recognized because the fish often appear normal upon release. Recovery from this stress can take up to several days, and during this time the fish are more vulnerable to predation, and less able to compete for resources. Stress related deaths can also occur within minutes or hours of release, with respiratory failure usually the cause.

The waveform produced by the electrofisher affects injury potential. Continuous direct current or low-frequency (≤ 30 Hz) pulsed direct current have been recommended for electrofishing (Fredenberg 1992, Snyder 1992, Snyder 1995, Dalbey *et al.* 1996) because lower spinal injury rates, particularly in salmonids, occur with these waveforms (Fredenberg 1992, McMichael 1993, Sharber *et al.* 1994, Dalbey *et al.* 1996).

The age or stage of development of the target species affects injury rates too. Electrofishing can have severe effects on adult salmonids, particularly spinal injuries from forced muscle contraction. Sharber and Carothers (1988) reported that have been conducted on juvenile salmonids indicate that spinal injury rates are substantially lower than they are for large fish. Smaller fish intercept a smaller head-to-tail potential than larger fish (Sharber and Carothers 1988) and may therefore be subject to lower injury rates (e.g., Hollender and Carline 1994, Dalbey *et al.* 1996, Thompson *et al.* 1997). McMichael *et al.* (1998) found a 5.1 percent injury rate for juvenile steelhead captured by electrofishing in the Yakima River subbasin. Cho *et al.* (2002) showed that electrofishing has dramatic negative effect on survival of eggs from electroshocked females (up to 93 percent mortality) and eggs electrofished post spawning (up to 34 percent mortality).

7. Dip Nets

Dip nets are bag shaped nets on a frame attached to a handle. The net is placed under the fish and then lifted from the water in a scooping motion. Dip nets are useful when collecting fish that have been trapped by other methods, such as electrofishing or trap nets. Scales and mucus can be abraded by the net, and fish can be crushed by the frame when the handler is attempting to catch them.

8. Traps

There are several common types of traps used to catch fish (e.g., fyke traps, screw traps, and pot gears). Fyke nets also are known as wing nets, frame nets, trap nets, and hoop nets (Hubert 1996). These nets generally are used in shallow waters of lakes and reservoirs, but they can also be used in deep water and in streams with slow currents. Modified fyke nets have frames across them near the mouth for stabilization. Fyke nets have leads or wings of webbing attached to the mouth to guide fish into the enclosure. Fish will swim into the enclosure as they follow the lead or wing in an attempt to get around the netting. Fish captured with fyke and trap nets are less stressed than fish captured with entanglement gears and are usually released unharmed. However, the use of these nets can cause abrasion to fish from shaking fish down into the cod end prior to removal. Furthermore, these nets can result in mortality when small fish are gilled in the mesh of the nets.

Screw traps are used in rivers of medium flow to capture fish as they travel downstream. They are large cones attached to a catamaran. Screw traps are manufactured in various diameters (approximately 3-5 feet), and are placed horizontally in the stream bed with the open end of the cone facing upstream. Half of the open end of the cone is above the water. The fish enter the open end and proceed through a corkscrew in the downstream end of the trap. At the end of the corkscrew is a box for live capture, which will hold the fish. The purpose of the corkscrew is to prevent the fish from escaping out the open funnel end of the trap.

Pot gears are traps that are portable and rigid, with small openings for animals to enter and are usually small enough to be carried by hand (Hubert 1996). They are typically weighted with stones and marked by a buoy. Some examples of typical pot gears are lobster pots, minnow traps, slat traps for catfish, eel pots and crab pots. These traps are used to capture fish and crustaceans and are most efficient at capturing bottom-dwelling species seeking food or shelter. Fish are captured in the trap when they pass through a conical shaped funnel to reach a receptacle containing bait. One of the risks associated with the use of pot gears is that the gear can continue to capture animals if it is lost, a process called ghost fishing. Fish caught in the various types of pot traps can be crushed by **in-trap** weight.

Fish caught in traps experience stress and injury from overcrowding if the traps are not emptied on a regular basis. Debris buildup at traps can also kill or injure fish if the traps are not

monitored and cleared on a regular basis. Fish caught in traps are vulnerable to in-trap predation by other fish and to predation by mammals, birds, or reptiles that are able to enter the trap.

9. Gill Nets

Gill nets are walls of netting suspended vertically in the water by a float line on the top and lead line on the bottom. The mesh of gill nets is relatively large; fish attempt to pass through the mesh and are captured. Fish are caught in the net in one of three ways: (1) gilled - held by mesh slipping behind the opercula, (2) wedged - held by the mesh around the body, or (3) tangled - held by teeth, spines, **maxillaries** or other protrusions without penetration of the mesh (Nielsen and Johnson 1983). Fish are primarily caught in the net by being gilled. When a fish is gilled the opercula do not open and close efficiently and disrupt respiratory gas exchange, leading to suffocation. Sometimes fish are injured while being removed from a gill net, including damage to internal organs from being squeezed, damage to scales and mucus, and damage to **jaws** and other protruding segments of the body. Soak time proportionally affects the lethal nature of gill nets (Hubert 1983, Hubert 1996); therefore, use of short-length gill nets that are checked frequently should reduce injury. Since gill nets are highly lethal and stress fish more than other forms of passive gears (Hubert 1996), gill nets should not be the preferred gear for capturing live fish for release. Mortality associated with gill nets can be reduced to as little as 6 percent with the of short net soak times, careful handling of **fish** on removal from the net, and a recovery box (Fraser *et al.* 2002).

10. Gastric Lavage

Information on fish diet may be useful in endangered species management. A significant component of diet studies is to know the content of a fish's stomach; the simplest and most primitive method is to kill the fish, surgically remove its stomach, and describe the stomach contents. However, sacrificing ESA-listed fish for diet analyses is not acceptable. Fortunately, there are several nonlethal methods available for determining the diet of listed fish. Most times gastric evacuation entails inserting a tube through the esophagus to the stomach of a fish and then flushing the stomach contents. Alternative methods include the use of emetics, vacuuming the stomach, the use of forceps, or flushing the anus. **Kamler** and Pope (2001) reviewed several gastric evacuation methods and found that most procedures were relatively safe and effective at removing stomach contents. Some risks associated with gastric lavage include: increased handling time and associated stress; injury to the soft tissues of the esophagus, stomach, or intestine; and, with some techniques, injury to the jaws and anesthetic-related injury. Most reported levels of injury are quite low, frequently zero (reviewed in Kamler and Pope 2001), but Sprague *et al.* (1993) reported 33 percent mortality in juvenile white sturgeon (*Acipenser transmontanus*) and **Hartleb** and **Moring** (1995) reported mortality of 60 percent in golden shiner (*Notemigonus crysoleucas*). **Haley** (1998), however, showed that mortality in juvenile sturgeon could be greatly reduced by using smaller, more ductile tubing than used by Sprague *et al.* (1993), and by anesthetizing test fish. Gastric lavage has been used safely, and effectively in salmonids (**Meehan** and Miller 1978, **Meehan** 1996, Kamler and Pope 2001). **Meehan** and Miller

(1978) reported 10-15 percent mortality (after 30 days) in coho salmon that were collected by electrofisher, subjected to gastric lavage, transferred to a laboratory, and held 30 days; it is not possible to determine which factor had the greatest influence on survival. We expect less mortality because the applicant has not proposed transfer of specimens from the collection site, or holding of specimens after treatment.

D. Program Effects

The cumulative total take of adult and juvenile fish from each ESU estimated to result from the Program's 78 projects is summarized in Table 2. The majority of take resulting from the Program will be non-lethal in nature, and effects on the survival of individual fish exposed to such take is likely to be discountable. For most ESUs, less than 2 percent of the total take will result in mortality to fish (with the exception of 3.8 percent lethal take of adult NC steelhead and 5.3 percent of juvenile Central Valley steelhead), and in no case will lethal take exceed 5.3 percent of fish sampled for an ESU. The estimated amount of take for each project has been confirmed for accuracy and reasonableness by the principal investigator and NOAA Fisheries biologists.

The primary effects of the Program on ESA-listed salmonids are expected to be stress and other sub-lethal effects caused by observing, capturing, and handling fish. Non-lethal take from non-invasive methods mentioned above should not, in general, impact the chance of survival of individual fish. Unintentional harassment, harm, and mortality may occur during handling or after the fish has been released. Based on prior experience with the research techniques and protocols that will be used to conduct the proposed scientific research, no more than five percent of the juvenile salmonids encountered are likely to be killed as an indirect result of being captured and handled and, in most cases, this lethal take will not exceed three percent (NOAA Fisheries, unpublished data). NOAA Fisheries expects that less than one percent of the adults handled will die (NOAA Fisheries, unpublished data).

Furthermore, the Program will affect more juvenile fish than adult fish, which in turn will result in less impact on a population or ESU. At least 97 percent of the estimated total take for any given ESU is for take of juvenile fish, with the exception of CV steelhead (86 percent; Table 2). Take of juvenile fish would impact a population or ESU less than take of adult fish because of the expected survival rates of juvenile and adult fish. Adult fish that return to freshwater to migrate to their spawning grounds have overcome numerous obstacles during their freshwater and ocean residence (e.g., predation, competition, water diversions, etc.). For example, 23 years of monitoring adult survival of hatchery-released fall-run Chinook salmon showed an average of 0.35 percent of fish return as adults to spawn in freshwater in the Central Valley during 1973-1995 (USFWS 2001). Juvenile salmon in the Central Valley survival rates from fry to smolt stage range from 3 percent to 34 percent in the Sacramento River system (Healy 1991). In estimating the juvenile production of endangered Sacramento River winter-run Chinook salmon, NOAA Fisheries (2002b) approximates 15 percent of salmon survive to smolt age passing through the Sacramento-San Joaquin Delta on their seaward migration.

The majority of any impacts to the recovery of any given ESU from the Program is attributable to fewer than a dozen projects (Table 3). We discuss the effects of 10 specific projects that account for the greatest impact on the survival and recovery of each ESU (i.e., highest proportion of take, resiliency of population in a watershed) from the Program, and then summarize the effects of the remaining 68 projects that together account for a nominal impact to an ESU. In particular, we analyze the potential effects of the select **projects** and consider the type of take activity, sampling gear, sampling frequency, stream location, time of year of sampling, and the life stage of listed fish that may be affected by the project.

1. Coastal ESU's

Table 2a.
Estimated take of adult and juvenile fish for the coastal Evolutionarily Significant Units

Evolutionarily Significant Unit	Adult			Juvenile			Total take	(% Adult take)	(% Juvenile take)
	Non-lethal	Lethal	% Lethal take	Non-lethal	Lethal	% Lethal take			
So. Oregon/No. California Coasts coho salmon	800	15	1.8	203,118	688	0.3	204,621	0.4	99.6
Central California Coast coho salmon	0	0	0.0	24,550	234	0.9	24,784	0.0	100.0
California Coastal Chinook salmon	500	10	2.0	191,590	1,690	0.9	193,790	0.3	99.7
Northern California steelhead	280	10	3.4	346,304	4,968	1.4	351,562	0.1	99.9
Central California Coast steelhead	75	0	0.0	37,404	765	2.0	38,244	0.2	99.8
South Central California Coast steelhead	0	0	0.0	8,275	60	0.7	8,335	0.0	100.0

Projects in the northern California watershed (the Mattole River north to the Oregon border) represent the southern range of the SONCC coho salmon and the northern range of the CC Chinook and NC steelhead. Populations in these watersheds are critical to the overall genetic diversity and population stability of these ESUs. In analyzing the effects to listed salmonids from the lethal take associated with CDFG research activities, NOAA Fisheries considered the amount of lethal take requested and the ability of the population in the target watershed to withstand this level of pressure. Projects representing the highest number of fish are not necessarily those that may have the greatest impact on the survival and recovery of an ESU. Larger populations may withstand higher lethal take levels without negative impacts; a smaller population could decline due to the loss of a few fish, especially adults. Furthermore, the smaller population may represent a valuable contribution to the genetic variability of the ESU, particularly if the population is isolated from other populations.

In most instances, requested lethal take represented a negligible impact on the salmon population in the watersheds where take will occur because the requested take numbers are small, relative to the watershed populations where the sampling will occur, and the requested take will be spread out over a large number of creeks. Applicants typically anticipate lethal take of 1 or 2 fish for every 100, or more, that they expect to handle. Furthermore, the lethal take for these projects will be only juvenile stage fish, mostly young of the year (YOY) and this life stage typically experiences naturally high mortality rates often as high as 99% during the first year. For

example, in Freshwater Creek, the number of coho salmon declined from an estimated 200,000 YOY in April 2001, to 66,000 in August 2001, to 3000 out migrant smolts in 2002, a mortality of 98.5 percent (Seth Ricker, CDFG, pers. comm. Nov. 2003). Survival from smolt to adult is much higher, typically 5 to 10 percent, and therefore lethal take from the smolt stage is more likely to translate in to fewer returning adults. Under desirable ocean conditions, return rates may increase significantly. For example, in Freshwater Creek, an estimated 1500 adults coho salmon (based on mark and recapture data) returned in 2002 from an estimated 6000 out migrants 2 years earlier (Seth Ricker, CDFG, pers. comm. Nov. 2003).

Typical of most applicants in the northern California coastal watersheds is one from Larry Preston, CDFG, (Project #22) who proposes to do general stream surveys by snorkel counts, minnow traps and electrofishing. Mr. Preston is requesting lethal take for 15 CC Chinook (nonlethal 500) and 100 NC steelhead (5,000 nonlethal), all juveniles, for 396 creeks north of San Francisco Bay. Another example is a request from Scott Harris, CDFG, (Project #5) to monitor and survey streams with down migrant trapping and electrofishing in the Eel, Russian rivers and other Mendocino coastal basins. Mr. Harris is requesting lethal take of 4 juvenile NC steelhead out of 5,000 he expects to handle **non-lethally**. These take requests, lethal and non, will be spread out relatively evenly over the entire proposed sampling area, rather than all the lethal take in one sample reach. Collectively, there are 13 permit applications in this general category that represent requests for lethal take of 12 SONCC coho salmon juveniles (1,100 nonlethal), 111 CC Chinook salmon juveniles (24,295 nonlethal), and 513 NC steelhead juveniles (43,905 nonlethal).

Six applicants made requests for high numbers of lethal take (200 to 1,000 fish) because they operate downstream migrant traps that tend to capture large numbers of fish. For example, Phillip Barrington, CDFG, (Project #13) is requesting lethal take of 1,093 CC Chinook and 538 NC steelhead in Upper Redwood Creek for operating a rotary screw trap on Upper Redwood Creek. Similarly, Harry Vaughn, Eel River Salmon Restoration Project, (Project #44) is requesting lethal take of 200 CC Chinook and 460 NC steelhead to operate in channel McBane modified pipe traps in Sproul Creek, a tributary to the South Fork of the Eel River. However, these take requests represent 0.5 -1.0 percent of their perspective nonlethal requested take for CC Chinook (120,713 for Mr. Barrington and 10,000 for Mr. Vaughn) and NC steelhead (118,543 for Mr. Barrington and 23,000 for Mr. Vaughn). Furthermore, as with the small scale projects, lethal take will be juvenile fish and mostly YOY.

Complicating matters for the applicants when requesting take is the huge variability in fish numbers that may occur in any sample area between years. Researchers must make a take request, from which lethal take is typically calculated, to account for the number of fish they could encounter, not necessarily what they expect to encounter. For example, Mr. Barrington has also requested lethal take of 650 SONCC coho salmon for a trapping study in the Freshwater Creek watershed (Project #78). However, this is based on a nonlethal take request of 201,104 juveniles, the actual number of fish captured by a CDFG study in 2001 (of which approximately 199,900 were YOY - the remaining fish were either yearlings or smolts). Although the usual

number of juvenile coho salmon trapped in Freshwater Creek is substantially lower, ranging from 3,000 to 8,000 in the last few years, Mr. Barrington must consider the possibility of capturing this large number of fish again, and therefore request this high take number. Furthermore, with improved ocean conditions contributing to increased survival of salmon in general, applicants must presume increased fish numbers will continue in the foreseeable future. Because Mr. Barrington has requested a high lethal take based on a high population present, a lower number of sampled fish will translate into less lethal take. Therefore, NOAA Fisheries expects the lethal take for Mr. Barrington's study will be proportionate to the number of fish trapped. For example, his request for a lethal take of 650 fish is 0.3 percent of 200,000 and therefore sampling a more typical number of 8,000 fish would translate to approximately lethal take of 24 individuals.

There are three applicants who have requested take of adult salmon from northern California coastal ESUs; only one has requested lethal take. Phillip Barrington has requested lethal take of 15 SONCC coho salmon (800 nonlethal), 10 CC Chinook salmon (500 nonlethal), and 10 NC steelhead (250 nonlethal) for the operation of an adult fish trap on Freshwater Creek. However, as with juvenile fish, the request for lethal take for adults is function of total fish sampled and therefore less returning adults will translate into less lethal take. For example, Mr. Barrington is requesting a lethal take equal to 2 percent of fish handled non-lethally and therefore if 100 CC Chinook salmon are trapped, the potential mortality level may be 2 fish rather than 10.

NOAA Fisheries recognizes the potential increased impact to a salmon population from the take of adults. However, NOAA Fisheries expects the lethal take allotted to returning adult salmon in the Freshwater Creek watershed will not appreciably reduce the likelihood of the population's survival. Salmon populations are inherently resilient to the loss of a small percent of the population, even at the adult life stage (Spence et. al. 1996). Unless a population is reduced to just a few individuals, the loss of 1-2 percent of a returning adult population will not have a significant biological impact on the stability of that population (Dr. Terry Roloefs, Humboldt State University, pers. comm. December 2003). Furthermore, in spite of the operation of the adult fish trap for over 15 years, there has been a substantial increase in salmonid populations in the watershed since 1998.

The "Noyo River Juvenile Steelhead and Coho Salmon Abundance Estimation" (Project #10), is proposing to capture 100,000 juvenile NC steelhead, 10,000 juvenile CCC coho salmon, and 2,500 juvenile CC Chinook salmon from six locations on the Noyo River using fyke traps and electrofishing. Most of these fish will be young of year (YOY) fish, not smolts or adults. Unintentional lethal take requested is 3,000 juvenile NC steelhead, 113 juvenile CCC coho salmon, and 100 juvenile CC Chinook salmon. Survival rates for juvenile fish, especially YOY, is usually very low, so any unintentional lethal take that may occur is probably similar to what would occur naturally. This project accounts for 55 percent of the juvenile lethal take for NC steelhead, 44 percent of the juvenile lethal take for CCC coho salmon, and 4 percent of the juvenile lethal take for CC Chinook salmon. The amount of unintentional lethal take requested is expected to be an overestimate as the amount of actual mortality is usually less. The impact of

this amount of take, if it even occurs, in the Noyo River should be minimal due to the fact that fish are quite abundant and widely distributed in this watershed. These fish have also shown a resilience to past disturbance. In fact, this study has been ongoing for over five years with no known significant impact to the population in this watershed. In addition, this study does not propose intentional lethal take and precautions will be required to minimize the chances of mortality to captured fish, further reducing the amount of potential fish loss.

The "South Central California Coast Salmon and Steelhead Restoration and Enhancement Program" (Project # 30), is proposing to capture 125 CCC coho salmon, 5,000 CCC steelhead and 5,000 SCCC steelhead from 90 randomly selected sites throughout California. Methods of capture will include electrofishing, seines, trapping, snorkeling and telemetry. There is no request for take of adults, only juvenile fish. This project accounts for 2 percent of the juvenile lethal take for CCC steelhead, 2 percent of the juvenile lethal take for CCC coho salmon, and 33 percent of the juvenile lethal take for SCCC steelhead in the Program. The amount of unintentional lethal take requested is expected to be an overestimate, as the amount of actual lethal take is usually less. CDFG fisheries biologist Jennifer Nelson has estimated the overall mortality rate resulting from predation within **outmigrant** traps at less than 0.5 percent. At least half of the fish captured from this project will be from outmigrant trapping so NOAA fisheries expects the actual mortality from the trapping surveys to be within the 0.5 percent range. In addition, this study does not propose intentional lethal take and precautions will be required to minimize the chances of mortality to captured fish, further reducing the amount of potential fish loss. These projects will also be so spread out over the various ESU's that the impact of any unintentional lethal take will likely be very low in any given creek.

2. Central Valley ESU's

Table 2b.
Estimated take of adult and juvenile fish for the Central Valley Evolutionarily Significant Units

Evolutionarily Significant Unit	Adult			Juvenile			Total take	% Adult take	% Juvenile take
	Non-lethal	Lethal	% Lethal take	Non-lethal	Lethal	% Lethal take			
Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon	24,830	59	0.2	787,036	14,261	1.8	826,186	3.0	97.0
Central Valley steelhead	6,475	134	2.1	38,170	2,020	5.3	46,799	14.1	85.9

Two projects account for the majority of take of Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon adult and juvenile fish estimated for the Program. The first project, #77 ("Butte and Big Chico Creeks spring-run Chinook salmon life history investigation"), accounts for 86 percent and 91 percent of lethal and nonlethal take, respectively, of juvenile fish, and 81 percent of nonlethal take of adult fish. The estimated take from this project is large and potentially would have the most impact to the CV spring-run Chinook salmon ESU as the result of the estimated take numbers and because the sampling sites are restricted to one stream (Table 3). However, the impacts of the project to the ESU is limited and affect juvenile fish only. For example, 100 percent of take of adult fish results from non-invasive snorkel and carcass surveys, and only 1.7 percent of the juvenile take is estimated to result in fish mortality. Juvenile fish will be captured, measured, and released (30

percent of which will be tagged) by experienced personnel to ensure minimal disturbance to the fish.

Butte Creek, the primary site of this **project**, has the largest of three sustaining populations of spring-run Chinook salmon, and is an important stream for establishing population trends for the ESU. Butte Creek supports a large adult population that has reached up to 20,259 in 1998, and most recently to 9,605 in 2001 (Ward and **McReynolds** 2002). Fry production in Butte Creek over the last decade has ranged from a low of 155,282 fry in 1994 to a high of 6,636,848 fry in 1998 (based on 52:48 female to male spawner ratio (Ward and McReynolds 2001); 4,200 eggs per female (CDFG 1998c); 15 percent egg to fry survival (**Healy** 1991)). The proportion of lethal take of juveniles resulting from this project, therefore, would approximate 8 percent to 0.2 percent of the population given the calculations for high and low population estimates mentioned above.

This specific study has been ongoing since 1995 during which the populations have continued to show an increasing trend (Ward and McReynolds 2001). The trend of increasing abundance of juvenile and adult fish suggests the scale of this project, and previous take of upwards of 8 percent of juvenile fish, has not had adverse effects on the Butte Creek population. This ongoing study may have had an effect on the population but the effect does not appear to be negative given the increase in fish abundance in recent years. The non-invasive method of adult take and the relatively low mortality rate resulting from take of juvenile fish is therefore not expected to be likely to jeopardize the existence of the population in Butte Creek or the ESU.

The second project, #39 ("Feather River Fisheries Research-Feather River Hatchery Fish Ladder Investigations"), accounts for 85 percent of the estimated lethal take for adult CV spring-run Chinook salmon. While this project may account for a large number of take of fish, the principal investigators have recently determined these numbers were overestimated. The investigators have found similar studies using the same study protocol to result in far less lethal take of salmon (e.g., 1 mortality out of 100 fish sampled; Anna **Kastner**, CDFG, personal communication, October 2003). The investigators have committed to implement study protocols that have been successful in reducing mortality, which would result in this project incurring lethal take of only a few adult fish based on the pilot study results. Take of a few adult fish (e.g., 1 percent of those captured) that may result from this project would not likely jeopardize the existence of populations in the Feather River, which is estimated to support a high of 6,833 adult CV spring-run Chinook salmon in 1988 and most recently supported an estimated 4,189 adult fish in 2002 (CDFG, unpublished data).

The project, "Distribution and Relationship of Resident and Anadromous Central Valley Rainbow Trout, Otolith Analysis" (Project #25), accounts for 75 percent of the adult lethal take and 19 percent of juvenile lethal take of CV steelhead. This project will obtain most of the specimens from opportunistically collected carcasses and incidental mortalities resulting from other permitted research and monitoring projects and archived samples. Any additional needed specimens will be collected from a broad geographic region spanning a dozen Central Valley

streams in the Sacramento and San Joaquin basins (see Table 3 for locations). Given the scenario that no **otolith** specimens are available from other projects, a maximum of 75 juvenile fish would be sacrificed from each of six streams over the course of a year. Such an amount may incur lethal take of 5 percent of the juvenile *O. mykiss* population in the Calaveras River, an example of one of the larger Central Valley streams with relatively low population numbers (e.g., 1606 juvenile fish based on S.P. Cramer unpublished data). This translates into 5 to 8 percent fewer fish returning as adults to spawn in the Central Valley using juvenile survival and adult return rates for Central Valley Chinook salmon (e.g., 5 percent lethal take in Calaveras River; 3 to 34 percent juvenile Chinook salmon survival rates in the Central Valley (Healy 1991); 0.35 percent Chinook salmon return as adults to spawn in Central Valley (USFWS 2001)). The impact of this project on Central Valley steelhead should be minimal given the general non-invasive nature of specimen collection, year-round sampling, and the broad geographic scope of sampling location.

E. Beneficial Effects of Approving CDFG's Program

NOAA Fisheries approves CDFG's Program on the basis of the Program's aim to conserve salmonids and meet their biological requirements, which are criteria set forth in the 4(d) rule for threatened salmonids. The use of ESA-listed species for scientific research is consistent with the purpose of the ESA when the research facilitates recovery of a listed species. The status reviews for ESA-listed salmonids within California lament the lack of data available for making satisfactory management decisions (Busby *et al.* 1996, NOAA Fisheries 1997a, Myers *et al* 1998). Data generated from CDFG's Program will be useful for the management and recovery of ESA-listed salmonids. Scientific information is necessary to reduce uncertainty in determining whether a consultation is to be conducted formally or informally, in determining whether an action jeopardizes a listed species and when developing terms and conditions, reasonable and prudent measures, and reasonable and prudent alternatives.

In order to facilitate the restoration and recovery of ESA-listed salmonids within the Coastal and the Central Valley of California, scientific research programs directed toward developing a more robust and complete body of information are needed. Resulting information from these types of research projects in the Program is valuable to reduce uncertainty in management decisions that might affect salmon. Also, monitoring activities can help NOAA Fisheries determine if protective actions are assisting in the recovery of listed species within the action area. Information from research activities can facilitate recovery. The risks to individual ESA-listed salmonids from the adverse effects of scientific research are minor when compared to the benefits that are expected from the issuance of research permits. As described above, the impacts to populations within the ESUs are not expected to be sufficient to reduce appreciably the likelihood of survival and recovery of those ESUs.

VI. CUMULATIVE EFFECTS

Cumulative effects are defined in 50 CFR 402.02 as “those effects of future State or private activities, not involving Federal activities, that are reasonably certain to occur within the action area of the Federal action subject to consultation.” For the purpose of this analysis, the action area includes all coastal California streams from north of the Santa Maria River in San Luis Obispo County to the **Oregon/California** border and streams draining into San Francisco and San Pablo bays, including the Sacramento-San Joaquin River Basin. Future Federal actions, including the ongoing operation of dams, hatcheries, fisheries, water withdrawals, and land management activities will be reviewed through separate **ESA** section 7 consultation processes and not considered here. Non-Federal actions which may affect listed species within the action area considered in this biological opinion include: urbanization, changes in agricultural practices or demand for agricultural products, changes in State hatchery practices, State angling regulations, gravel mining, forestry, and voluntary State or private sponsored habitat restoration activities. The following is a summary of potential cumulative effects that may affect the listed salmonids in the action area.

Tribal, State, and local government actions will likely be in the form of legislation, administrative rules or policy initiatives, and may encompass changes in land and water uses or intensity of use, which could impact listed species or their habitat. Tribal and government actions are subject to political, legislative, and fiscal uncertainties that will determine participation and, therefore, the effect such actions have on listed species. These realities, added to the geographic scope of the action area which encompasses numerous government entities exercising various authorities and the actions of many private landowners, make any analysis of cumulative effects difficult and speculative.

Tribal governments will continue to participate in cooperative efforts involving watershed and basin planning designed to improve fish habitat. Tribal governments will need to put into practice comprehensive and beneficial natural resource programs if they are to have measurable positive effects on listed species and their habitat.

The state of California administers the allocation of water resources within its borders. State and local governments are cooperating with each other and Federal agencies to increase environmental protections, including better habitat restoration and hatchery and harvest reforms. NOAA Fisheries also cooperates with the State water resource management agencies in assessing water resource needs in the action area and in developing flow requirements that will benefit listed fish. During low-water years, however, there may not be enough flow to meet the needs of fish. Moreover, these government efforts could be reduced or even discontinued, so their cumulative effect on listed fish is unpredictable.

Local governments will be faced with similar, but more direct pressures from population growth and movement. The reaction of local governments to such pressures is difficult to assess at this time. In the past, local governments in the action area generally accommodated additional

growth in ways that adversely affected listed fish habitat. Also, there is little consistency among local governments in dealing with land use and environmental issues, so any positive effects that local government actions have on listed species and their habitat are likely to be scattered throughout the action area.

A. Urbanization

California is projected to be the #1 state in the United States in projected growth of human populations in both percent change and numbers of individuals with nearly 18 million new residents, and a projected increase of more than 55 percent by 2025 (U.S. Census Bureau, www.census.gov). Increased human population will: place greater demands in the action area for electricity, water, and land with development potential; increase demand for waste disposal sites; affect water quality directly and indirectly; and increase the need for transportation, communication, and other infrastructure development. In addition, increasing water demands, which affects water quality and quantity, riparian function, and stream productivity, will continue to impact salmonid populations in the future throughout the action area. As anthropogenic effects are generally accepted as the major cause for the decline of salmonids within California watersheds, it does not seem likely that these effects will be lessened as the human population growth rate is high in California. Furthermore, the increasing demand for water will likely challenge CALFED's and Central Valley Project Improvement Act's ability to provide aquatic habitat for listed salmonid species.

The effects of private actions are the most uncertain. Private landowners may change, intensify, or diminish their current land and water uses, possibly impacting salmonids and their habitat. Individual landowners may voluntarily initiate actions to improve environmental conditions, or they may abandon or resist any improvement efforts. Their actions may be compelled by new laws, or may arise out of population growth and economic pressures. Changes in ownership patterns will have unknown impacts. NOAA Fisheries is unable to effectively predict the possible effects of private actions.

Increasing urbanization can also increase waste water discharges. Waste water discharges can result in negative thermal effects, associated organic input into aquatic systems, changes in aquatic invertebrate communities, increased algae and **phytoplankton**, and elevated **coliform** bacteria levels. Nonpoint source discharges are known to occur as a result of failing septic systems and other sources throughout the action area. Point source discharges occur at storm water drains or other discrete locations. Sediment input into streams results from bank slope failure along logged streams where vegetation has been removed or from **unpaved** roads that are poorly maintained. Discharges from identified point sources of wastewater are expected to be conducted under applicable State and Federal laws.

B. Water Withdrawals and Diversions

It is anticipated that environmental impacts from water withdrawals will continue at their present levels or increase as the result of the state's expected increase in population size. These impacts will include localized dewatering of stream reaches, entrapment of younger salmonids, and depletion of flows necessary for migration, spawning, rearing, flushing of sediment from spawning gravels, gravel recruitment, and transport of large woody debris. Unprotected or poorly screened water diversions will continue to impact young salmonids with fry being drawn into water pumps or being stuck against the pump's screened intakes.

C. Agriculture

Agricultural activities within the action area include livestock grazing, dairy farming, and the cultivation of crops. The recent upward trend in the value of agricultural products is likely to continue as human populations increase. The impacts of this land use on aquatic species include decreased soil stability, loss of shade- and cover-producing riparian vegetation, increased sediment inputs, and elevated coliform bacteria levels. In addition, the placement of temporary dams, used to facilitate water supply for irrigation, may cause **migrational** barriers and habitat alteration for juvenile salmonids or create lentic habitats beneficial to normative predatory fish species.

D. Chemical Use

It is anticipated that chemicals such as pesticides, herbicides, fertilizers, and fire **retardants** will continue to be used in the action area. Impacts to salmonids may include changes to riparian vegetation and associated organic input into aquatic systems, changes in aquatic invertebrate communities, and increased algae and phytoplankton.

E. Hatcheries

State hatchery practices could reduce natural stocks of listed salmonids and their overall populations through competition, reduction in genetic diversity, and disease transmission resulting from hatchery introductions. However, the effects of hatchery practices on listed salmonids may also depend on other factors such as predation and habitat quantity and quality. Efforts are currently underway between NOAA Fisheries and the State to modify existing hatchery practices in ways to augment salmon and steelhead populations without having detrimental effects on naturally spawning populations. Through the close evaluation of practices at all anadromous fish hatcheries in California, the State is expected to determine the effects on wild populations and take steps to change hatchery practices if needed. In the future, NOAA Fisheries expects to consult on Federal hatchery activities. However until that time, these activities are part of the cumulative effects in the action area.

F. Angling

State angling regulations are generally moving towards greater restrictions to protect listed fish species. Through seasonal and area closures, greater numbers of adult listed fish are expected to complete their migration to upstream spawning areas. In general, these changes in State angling regulations are expected to increase populations of listed salmonids. Mass marking of juvenile anadromous fish produced at California fish hatcheries could allow for the implementation of selective ocean and **in-river** harvest. A selective fishery that targets only externally marked hatchery production and that releases naturally spawned fish may significantly reduce harvest rates on listed salmonids. However, if effort increases and the rate of by-catch of ESA-listed fish does not decline, then the negative effect of the fishery on ESA-listed fish may be amplified.

G. Stream Restoration Projects

Restoration activities may cause temporary increases in turbidity, alter channel dynamics and stability, and temporarily stress salmonids. Properly constructed stream restoration projects may increase available habitat, habitat complexity, stabilize channels and **streambanks**, increase spawning gravels, decrease sedimentation, and increase shade and cover for salmonids. NOAA Fisheries does not know how many stream enhancement **projects** are completed outside of the CDFG's program and cannot precisely predict the effects of these projects. The overall effects of these activities are expected to be temporary and localized and are considered beneficial to the long-term viability of salmonid populations.

H. Gravel Mining

It is anticipated that the environmental impacts associated with gravel mining will continue as California's increasing human population continues to place demands on this resource. These impacts include loss of suitable spawning gravels, decreased bedload movement, and increased levels of turbidity as well as direct loss of salmonid habitat due to river channel incision, bank erosion, habitat simplification, and tributary downcutting. The CDFG and NOAA Fisheries are in the process of developing and implementing a gravel mining policy within the action area. However, it is not anticipated that these efforts will lessen the impacts of gravel mining on salmonid populations for the near future.

I. Forestry

Although forestry was a significant industry in the action area prior to the **1990s**, most current logging is restricted to the mountainous areas of the action area. Future timber harvest activities may have direct, indirect, and cumulative effects by degrading features identified as essential for salmonid habitat. Construction of private **unsurfaced** roads may be a significant source of sediment input into streams that are habitat for listed salmonids. The level of new road construction cannot be anticipated, but impacts from roads associated with timber harvest

operations should decline due to the increased emphasis on protection of aquatic resources and implementation of higher standards for road construction, maintenance and use.

J. Summary

Non-Federal activities within the action area are expected to increase with the expected increase in human population over the next 25 years in California. Thus, NOAA Fisheries assumes that future private and State actions will continue within the action area, but at increasingly higher levels as population density climbs. The cumulative effects in the action area are difficult to analyze considering the large geographic scope of this opinion, the different resource authorities in the action area, the uncertainties associated with government and private actions, and the changing economies of the region. Based on the trends identified in this section, the adverse cumulative effects are likely to increase. Although State, tribal and local governments have developed plans and initiatives to benefit listed fish, they must be applied and sustained in a comprehensive way before NOAA Fisheries can consider them "reasonably certain to occur" in its analysis of cumulative effects.

VII. INTEGRATION AND SYNTHESIS

Populations of coho salmon, Chinook salmon, and steelhead in California have declined drastically over the last century and some subpopulations of salmonids have been lost. Within the action area, there are eight ESUs of salmonids listed as threatened under the ESA. The current status of listed salmonids in California, based upon their risk of extinction, has not significantly improved since the species were listed and some may have deteriorated (NOAA Fisheries 2003). The current status demonstrates the need for actions which will assist in the recovery of all of the listed salmonids, and that if measures are not taken to reverse these trends, the continued existence of these species could be at risk.

A major cause of the decline of anadromous salmonids in California is the loss or severe decrease in quality and function of essential habitat. Most of this habitat loss and degradation has resulted from anthropogenic watershed disturbances caused by agriculture, water diversion, urban development, erosion and flood control, dams, forestry, and gravel mining. Most of this habitat degradation is associated with the loss of essential habitat components necessary for the survival of anadromous salmonids.

The present body of scientific information relative to the abundance, distribution, and genetic composition of anadromous salmonid populations in California is incomplete. This paucity of data limits the ability of managers to evaluate proposed recovery actions. In order to facilitate the restoration and recovery of ESA-listed salmonids in California, a mechanism directed toward developing a more robust and complete body of information is needed. The NOAA Fisheries has established protective regulations for threatened anadromous salmonids in California. The NOAA Fisheries has limited the prohibitions on take in those eight ESUs through three separate

4(d) rules so long as the take occurs as the result of a program that adequately protects the listed species and its habitat. The CDFG requested a limit to take prohibitions for specific research and monitoring activities affecting all ESUs of threatened anadromous salmonids in California. Information provided by these projects can improve the body of knowledge relative to coho salmon, Chinook salmon, and steelhead. Also, the information can help NOAA Fisheries determine if protective actions are assisting in the recovery of listed species in the action area.

The objective of this biological opinion is to determine whether issuance of an authorization to CDFG limiting take associated with research and monitoring activities will reduce appreciably the likelihood of both the survival and recovery of listed species in the wild by reducing the reproduction, numbers, or distribution of those species. Specific activities involving take of ESA-listed salmonids anticipated in the CDFG Program may include: surveys by direct observation, capture by standard fishery gears, tagging, and other activities necessary to conduct studies aimed at the recovery of the species. The effect of this proposed action will consist of temporary behavior modification and rare instances of physical damage **and/or** possible mortality as a result of harassment, capture, or handling of individual fish. The potential impacts to individual ESA-listed salmonids are expected to be confined to specific sampling sites within the action area.

NOAA Fisheries conducted an analysis on several projects with the highest potential of having an impact on salmonid populations in a given watershed and found that the impact from these individual projects would be minimal. All of the other projects anticipated impacts that were minor or impacts spread out over large areas so that salmonid populations in these watersheds would be also minimally impacted. Also, more than 98.5 percent of anticipated take will be nonlethal. Although proposed research activities may have an adverse impact on listed salmonids, NOAA Fisheries expects the salmonid populations to be resilient to these impacts because none of the projects affect the production potential as spawning and rearing habitat will not be affected by the proposed **project**. As a result, populations should be able to successfully rebound from the small amount of unintentional mortalities anticipated. NOAA Fisheries believes that the studies implemented after issuance of the permits will make a significant contribution to the body of scientific knowledge and assist in conservation and management decisions that may lead to the recovery of ESA-listed salmonids in coastal northern California.

VIII. CONCLUSION

After reviewing the best available scientific and commercial information, the current status of SONCC coho salmon, CCC coho salmon, CC Chinook salmon, CVSR Chinook salmon, NC steelhead, CCC steelhead, SCCC steelhead, and CV steelhead, the environmental baseline for the action area, the effects of the proposed research and monitoring activities, and the cumulative effects, it is NOAA Fisheries' biological opinion that authorization of CDFG's Program is not likely to jeopardize the continued existence of any of these species.

IX. INCIDENTAL TAKE STATEMENT

Section 9 of the ESA and Federal regulations pursuant to section 4(d) of the Act prohibit the take of endangered and threatened species, respectively, without special exemption. Take is defined as to harass, harm, pursue, hunt, shoot, wound, kill, trap, capture, or collect, or to attempt to engage in any such conduct. Harm is further defined by NOAA Fisheries as an act which actually kills or injures fish or wildlife. Such an act may include significant habitat modification or degradation which actually kills or injures fish or wildlife by significantly impairing essential behavioral patterns, including breeding, spawning, rearing, migrating, feeding, or sheltering. Incidental take is defined as take that is incidental to, and not the purpose of, the carrying out of an otherwise lawful activity. Under the terms of section 7(b)(4) and 7(o)(2), taking that is incidental to and not intended as part of the proposed action is not considered to be prohibited taking under the Act provided that such taking is in compliance with this Incidental Take Statement.

No incidental take is anticipated. NOAA Fisheries proposes to exempt the actions described above as CDFG's Program from the take prohibitions implemented for the eight salmonid ESUs pursuant to section 4(d) of the ESA.

X. REINITIATION STATEMENT

This concludes formal consultation on the projects within the 2003-2004 CDFG Program. As provided in 50 CFR §402.16, reinitiation of formal consultation is required where discretionary Federal agency involvement or control over the action has been retained (or is authorized by law) and if: (1) the amount or extent of incidental take is exceeded; (2) new information reveals effects of the action that may affect listed species or critical habitat in a manner or to an extent not previously considered; (3) the identified action is subsequently modified in a manner that causes an effect to listed species or critical habitat that was not considered in the biological opinion; or (4) a new species is listed or critical habitat designated that may be affected by the identified action.

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XIII. FEDERAL REGISTER NOTICES CITED

Volume 61 pages 56138-56149. October 31, 1996. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Threatened Status for Central California Coast Coho Salmon Evolutionary Significant Unit.

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Volume 62 pages 38479-38485. July 18, 1997. National Marine Fisheries Service. Interim Rule Governing Take of the Threatened Southern Oregon/Northern California Coast Evolutionarily Significant Unit (ESU) of Coho Salmon.

Volume 62 pages 43937-43954. August 18, 1997. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Listing of Several Evolutionary Significant Units of West Coast Steelhead.

Volume 63 pages 13347-13371. March 19, 1998. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Endangered and Threatened Species: Threatened Status for Two ESUs of Steelhead in Washington, Oregon, and California.

Volume 64 pages 24049-24062. May 5, 1999. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule and Correction: Designated Habitat for Central California Coast Coho and Southern Oregon/Northern California Coast Coho Salmon.

Volume 64 pages 50394-50415. November 15, 1999. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Threatened Status for Two Chinook Salmon Evolutionary Significant Units in California.

Volume 65 pages 42422-42481. July 10, 2000. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Governing Take of 14 Threatened Salmon and Steelhead Evolutionary Significant Units.

Volume 65 pages 7764-7787. February 16, 2000. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Designated Habitat for 19 Evolutionary Significant Units of Salmon and Steelhead in Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and California.

Volume 65 pages 36074-36094. June 7, 2000. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Threatened Status for One Steelhead Evolutionarily Significant Unit (ESU) in California.

Volume 65 pages 42422-42481. July 10, 2000. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Governing Take of 14 Threatened Salmon and Steelhead Evolutionary Significant Units.

Volume 67 pages 1116-1133. January 9, 2002. National Marine Fisheries Service. Final Rule: Governing Take of Four Threatened Evolutionarily Significant Units (ESUs) of West Coast Salmonids.

Table 1. References for additional background on listing status, critical habitat, protective regulations, and biological information for the listed species addressed in this document.

ESU	Listing Status	Critical Habitat	Protective Regulations	Biological Information
Southern Oregon/Northern California Coast (<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>)	Threatened May 6, 1997 62 FR 24588	May 5, 1999 64 FR 24049	Jul 18, 1997 62 FR 38479	Hassler 1987; Sandercock 1991; Weitkamp <i>et al.</i> 1995; NOAA Fisheries 2001
Central California Coast coho salmon (<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>)	Threatened Oct 31, 1996 61 FR 56138 Jan 9, 1997 62 FR 1296 ²	May 5, 1999 64 FR 24049	Oct 31, 1996 61 FR 56138; Jan 9, 2002 67 FR 1116 ³	Shapovalov & Taft 1954; Hassler 1987; Sandercock 1991; Weitkamp <i>et al.</i> 1995; NOAA Fisheries 2001; NOAA Fisheries 2003
California Coastal Chinook salmon (<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>)	Threatened Sep 16, 1999 64 FR 50394	Feb 16, 2000 65 FR 7764 ⁴	Jan 9, 2002 67 FR 1116	Allen and Hassler 1986; Healey 1991; Myers <i>et al.</i> 1998; NOAA Fisheries 1999; NOAA Fisheries 2003
Central Valley Spring-run Chinook salmon (<i>Oncorhynchus tshawytscha</i>)	Threatened Sep 16, 1999 64 FR 50394	Feb 16, 2000 65 FR 7764 ³	Jan 9, 2002 67 FR 1116	Allen and Hassler 1986; Healey 1991; Myers <i>et al.</i> 1998; NOAA Fisheries 1999; NOAA Fisheries 2003
Northern California steelhead (<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>)	Threatened Jun 7, 2000 65 FR 36074	not designated	Jan 9, 2002 67 FR 1116	Barnhart 1986; Busby <i>et al.</i> 1996; NOAA Fisheries 1997; NOAA Fisheries 2003
Central California Coast steelhead (<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>)	Threatened Aug 18, 1997 62 FR 43937	Feb 16, 2000 65 FR 7764 ³	Jul 10, 2000 65 FR 42422	Shapovalov & Taft 1954; Barnhart 1986; Busby <i>et al.</i> 1996; NOAA Fisheries 1997; NOAA Fisheries 2003
South Central California Coast steelhead (<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>)	Threatened Aug 18, 1997 62 FR 43937	Feb 16, 2000 65 FR 7764 ³	Jul 10, 2000 65 FR 42422	Shapovalov & Taft 1954; Barnhart 1986; Busby <i>et al.</i> 1996; NOAA Fisheries 1997; NOAA Fisheries 2003
Central Valley steelhead (<i>Oncorhynchus kisutch</i>)	Threatened Mar 19, 1998 63 FR 13347	Feb 16, 2000 65 FR 7764 ⁴	Jul 10, 2000 65 FR 42422	Barnhart 1986; Busby <i>et al.</i> 1996; NOAA Fisheries 1997; McEwan 2001; NOAA Fisheries 2003

² In a technical correction to the final listing determination, NOAA Fisheries defined the CCC coho salmon ESU to include all coho salmon naturally-reproduced in streams between **Punta Gorda** in Humboldt County, California, and the San Lorenzo River in Santa Cruz County, California (inclusive), and included tributaries to San Francisco Bay.

³ NOAA Fisheries modified protective regulations for the threatened Central California Coast CCC coho salmon ESU to incorporate additional limits on the application of the take prohibitions.

⁴ On April 30, 2002, critical habitat designation for the CC and CVSR Chinook salmon ESU, and SCCC, CCC, and CV steelhead ESU, among others, was vacated by the Washington D.C. District Court, resolving claims challenging the process by which NOAA Fisheries designates critical habitat.

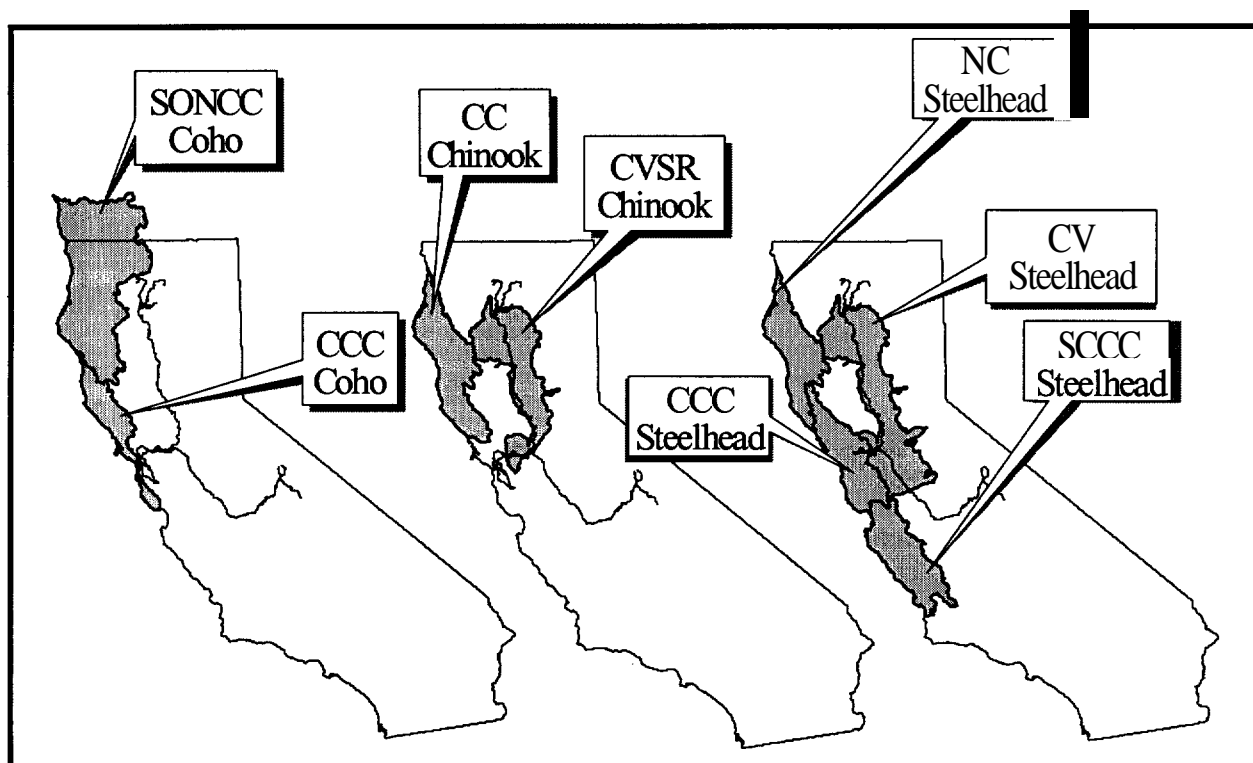


Figure 1. Maps illustrating the geographic and relative positions of various Evolutionarily Significant Units of salmonids in California. Specific boundaries of the featured Evolutionarily Significant Units are described in final listing determinations referenced in Table 1.

Project Number	Principal Investigator	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Gear	Take Activity	Project System	Federal Nexus	Central California Coast	Central California	Central Valley	Central Valley	Central Valley
									adult	juvenile	adult	juvenile	adult
1	William Mitchell (916) 737-3000	Life History and Stock Composition of Steelhead Trout in the Lower Yuba River	Life history	Analyze scales and otoliths from migrating adult steelhead to 1) characterize life history patterns, 2) assess run composition re: origin and life history pattern, 3) develop scale classification criteria for determining age, life history, and origin of C	Upstream- migrant trap	Hook- scale sample	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
2	Chait Duffly (707) 472-5644	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Demographic of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	Yes	0	0	0	0	0
3	Steve Bunnagum, Jr. (916) 737-3000	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Relate abundance of salmonids to restoration projects.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
4	Steve Bunnagum, Jr. (916) 737-3000	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Calculate and estimate Chinook production in the So	Kodja	Kodja	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
5	S. Ott Harris (707) 472-5644	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
6	Sandy Duffly (707) 472-5644	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
7	Robert Ledy (415) 972-3413	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
8	Robert Ledy (415) 972-3413	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
9	Philip Barrington (707) 623-4850	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0
10	Philip Barrington (707) 623-4850	USGS California Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Station, Humboldt State University	Life history and stock composition of Coho Salmon in the Humboldt State University	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish restoration project	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Capture methods include traps, observation, and electrofishing.	Year-round	No	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Description	Project Objectives	Project Year	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Agency	So. Oregon - No. California Coastal	California Coastal	California Coastal	California Coastal	California Coastal
11	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	2nd Shasta and Juvenile Salmon Abundance Estimates	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Shasta River watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring	Scott River	No	0	0	0	0	0
12	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	1st Mad River Adult Steelhead Radio Tag Study	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Mad River watershed.	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Mad River watershed.	2008-2010	capture/die	fall/winter	river	No	0	0	0	0	0
13	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	2nd Upper Redwood Creek Juvenile Steelhead Abundance Estimates	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Upper Redwood Creek watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile steelhead, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Upper Redwood Creek	No	0	0	0	0	0
14	Michael Wallace (707) 822-3702	CDFG	Juvenile Salmonid Use of Freshwater Slough, Humboldt Bay	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Humboldt Bay watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Freshwater Slough, Humboldt Bay	No	0	0	0	0	0
15	Michael Wallace (707) 822-3702	CDFG	Natural Stock Assessment Project: Juvenile Salmonid Emigration and Use of the Klamath River Estuary	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Klamath River watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Estuary	No	0	0	0	0	0
16	Michael Wallace (707) 822-3702	CSU Chico	Estuary Ecology & Community Class Monitoring	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Estuary watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Estuary	No	0	0	0	0	0
17	Michael Wallace (707) 822-3702	University of California Davis	Navarro River Watershed Project	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Navarro River watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Navarro River	No	0	0	0	0	0
18	Michael Johnson (530) 752-8837	UC Davis	Central Valley Steelhead Survey - Central Valley	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Central Valley watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Central Valley	No	0	0	0	0	0
19	Michael Fawcett (707) 876-3450		Long-term monitoring of juvenile salmonid abundance in Sonoma County streams	Describe habitat and migration patterns in the Sonoma County watershed.	Determine abundance of juvenile salmonids, age/size structure, and evaluate change in migration with change in flow or water.	2008-2010	capture/die	spring/summer	Sonoma County	No	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Description	Project Lead	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Nexus	Modified by CDFG	Central Valley steelhead	Central Valley spring-run steelhead	South Central California Coast steelhead	Central Valley spring-run steelhead	Central Valley steelhead
11	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	Salmon and steelhead migration survey	Describe migration patterns of juvenile salmonids, age and sex, evaluate recreational projects, evaluate change in migration with change in flow, water temperature, describe habitat use and migration patterns of wild and hatchery steelhead in Mad River	scow trap	capture/handle	spring	Shasta and Scott Rivers	No	No	non-lethal	non-lethal	non-lethal	non-lethal	lethal
12	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	Mad River Adult Steelhead Radio Tag Study	Describe migration and habitat use of adult steelhead in Mad River	scow trap	capture/handle	fall/winter	Mad River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
13	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	Upper Redwood Creek Juvenile Steelhead Assessment	Determine: emigrant population estimates for steelhead and Chinook salmon and temporal aspect of emigration.	scow trap	capture/handle	spring/summer	Upper Redwood Creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
14	Michael Wallace (707) 822-3702	CDFG	Salmon and steelhead estuarine ecology	Monitor emigration patterns and determine size of emigrants	seines	capture/handle	Mar-Sept	Freshwater Shasta and Humboldt Bay	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
15	Michael Wallace (707) 822-3702	CDFG	Natural Stock Assessment Project: Juvenile Salmon and Steelhead	Monitor juvenile cohort year class strength	seines	capture/handle	Mar-Sept	Klamath River Estuary	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
16	Michael Marchetti (530) 898-5641	CSU Chico	Aquatic ecology and ichthyology class	Provide information on 1) Snorkel, seine scale, life history, 2) biological community, 3) habitat and water quality, 4) population models, 5) watershed effects assessments, 6) habitat improvement projects, 7) develop performance metrics of steelhead populations.	Electrofishing	Handle	Sept	Big Chico and Butte Creeks	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
17	Michael Johnson (530) 752-8837	University of California	Salmon and steelhead watershed project	To elucidate a better understanding of the significance that the estuaries play in the salmonid lifecycle of steelhead in the North California rivers.	Capture methods include a bag release	Handle, take release	throughout the year	Navarro River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
18	Michael Johnson (530) 752-8837	UC Davis	Central Valley steelhead survey - tributaries	Provide information on 1) Snorkel, seine scale, life history, 2) biological community, 3) habitat and water quality, 4) population models, 5) watershed effects assessments, 6) habitat improvement projects, 7) develop performance metrics of steelhead populations.	Snorkel, seine	Handle, scale sample	year round	Mill, Antelope, Deer, Yuba, and Feather	No	No	0	0	0	0	0
19	Michael Fawcett (707) 876-3450	Independent consultant	Long-term monitoring of juvenile salmonid abundance in Sonoma County streams	To assess the effect of hydrologic conditions, watershed management practices, exposure to pesticides and other factors on fish numbers	Capture methods include seines release	Handle and release	July	Russian River, Salmon Creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0

Pr N	Point of Contact	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Gear	Task Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Feasibility	Approved by COFO	Central Valley				South-Central California				Central Valley				Central Valley			
											adult	juvenile	subadult	total	adult	juvenile	subadult	total	adult	juvenile	subadult	total	adult	juvenile	subadult	total
20	Graves, Steve (530) 756-7550	Salmon Science	Int. River Kathleen Stranding tagging	Diurnal of fish associated tagging flows in the river.	Salmon dip net	Hand	Jan-Jun	San Joaquin	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
21	May Greaves (530) 756-7550	Salmon Science	Salmon Chinook salmon Oncochrychus mykiss spawning gravel permeability assessment and monitoring program	Measure gravel permeability and assess juvenile distributions in Tule River and San Joaquin River.	Shovel	Shovel	Jan-Jun	Tule River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
22	Ken Johnson (530) 756-7550	Salmon Science	General salmon surveys	Describe population trends, identify stream restoration projects, identify streams in need of additional protection under CEQA and Fish and Game Codes.	Shovel, dip net, minnow traps, die	Shovel, dip net, minnow traps, die	Apr-Oct and winter	San Joaquin	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
23	Ken Johnson (530) 756-7550	Salmon Science	Tributary Rotary Screw Trap Operations	Evaluate peroral distribution and abundance of Chinook salmon (fauna) in tributaries.	Rotary trap	Rotary trap	Jan-Jun	San Joaquin	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
24	Ken Johnson (530) 756-7550	Salmon Science	Adult General	Evaluate genetic structure and adult escapement of Chinook salmon found in tributaries of San Joaquin River.	Scale, tissue, scale sampling, hook and count, weir, SPM	Scale, tissue, scale sampling, hook and count, weir, SPM	Oct-Dec	San Joaquin	No	Yes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
25	Ken Johnson (530) 756-7550	Salmon Science	Distribution and relationship of Chinook salmon in Central Valley rainbow trout in the Central Valley.	Examine occurrence distribution of rainbow trout in the Central Valley.	Carcass and spawning electrofishing traps, nets	Carcass and spawning electrofishing traps, nets	year-round	San Joaquin	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
26	Jose O. Selva (510) 822-3437	ES Fisheries and Wildlife Division	Fisheries community survey of salmonids	Describe fish community and habitat	Capture methods includes electrofishing and nets.	Capture methods includes electrofishing and nets.	throughout the year	San Joaquin	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
27	Jose O. Selva (510) 822-3437	ES Fisheries and Wildlife Division	Fisheries community survey of salmonids	Describe fish community and habitat	Capture methods includes electrofishing and nets.	Capture methods includes electrofishing and nets.	throughout the year	San Joaquin	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Gear	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Nexus	Modified by CDFG	So. Oregon/No. California Coasts				Central California Coast				California Coast				Northern California				
												adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult
28	Jill Anderson (530) 756-7550	State	Napa River Fisheries Monitoring Program for the US Army Corps of Engineers	Monitor presence of relative abundance of fish	to assess whether the Napa River/Creek restoration project is meeting its objectives in providing improved habitat for fish in the corridor	Capture, handle, and release	May-Oct	80 randomly selected sites throughout California	Napa River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
29	Jennifer York, Shawne McBride (530) 902-2643, (916) 358-2881	CDFG	Environmental Monitoring and Assessment Program - Vietnam Pilot	Stream and environmental surveys	Describe biological integrity of the locations.	Electrofishing	Handle	May-Oct	80 randomly selected sites throughout California	Yes	No	0	0	0	0	1,500	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
30	Jennifer Nelson (831) 688-6788	CDFG	South Central California Coast Salmon and Steelhead Restoration and Enhancement Program	stream and estuary surveys and migration studies	Describe estuarine habitat use of salmonids, population estimates or indices, monitoring immigration and emigration.	electrofishing, seine, fyke traps, screw traps, snorkel, telemetry	capture/handle, release	Year-round	ESU wide	No	No	0	0	0	0	125	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
31	Jeff Heger (510) 236-7366	Heger Environmental Science	2002-03 Salmon and steelhead survey in the San Lorenzo River system	Population analyses of fish in the San Lorenzo River	Develop baseline data for use in future trend analysis, resource management guidance, habitat protection and restoration, and fish population recovery	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	May-Sept	San Lorenzo River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
32	Jeff Heger (510) 236-7366	Heger Environmental Science	Steelhead utilization of lower Sequel Creek	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Use knowledge of steelhead presence and habitat utilization to better inform planning decisions regarding use of creek	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	winter, spring, and summer	Sequel Creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
33	Jeff Heger (510) 236-7366	Heger Environmental Science	Casa de Fuia Restoration Monitoring	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	June/Sept-Oct	Pacheco Creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
34	Jeff Heger (510) 236-7366	Heger Environmental Science	Arroyo Leon Steelhead Habitat Restoration	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Define the relative contributions of impoundment-reared steelhead and those reared in the more typical stream habitats in the watershed	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Spring/Summer	Arroyo Leon	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
35	Jeff Heger (510) 236-7366	Heger Environmental Science	Carmel River Lagoon Breach Monitoring	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Monitor fish to determine how breaching of the lagoon should be undertaken to minimize adverse impacts to steelhead trout	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Oct-May	Carmel River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
36	Jeff Dreier	Wetlands Research Associates, Inc.	Potential fish sampling projects in small tidal channels	fish sampling in shallow tidal wetland	determine use of restored wetland by common fish species, including sculpins, minnow traps and seine	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Year-round	South San Francisco Bay	No	No	0	0	0	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Proposed Activity	Take	Time of Sample	River System	Federal Permit	Central California Coast steelhead adult	Central California Coast steelhead juvenile	Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon adult	Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon juvenile	Central Valley steelhead adult	Central Valley steelhead juvenile
28	Jim Anderson (530) 756-1550	Sierra Nevada Sciences	Napa River Fisheries Monitoring Program for the US Army Corps of Engineers	Monitor presence and relative abundance of fish	To assess the Napa River restoration project's effectiveness in providing needed habitat to the corridor	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Year-round	Napa River	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
29	Jenni H York, Shawn McElrath (530) 902-2543, (916) 368-2881	CDFG	Environmental Monitoring and Assessment Program - Western Pilot	Stream and environmental surveys	Describe biological integrity of the locations.	Capture, handle, and release	Handle	Year-round	SO randomly selected streams in Western Calif.	Yes	0	0	0	0	0	0
30	Her Nelson (916) 688-6768	CDFG	South Central California Coast Salmon and Steelhead Restoration and Enhancement Program	Stream and estuary surveys and migrator studies	Describe estuarine habitat use of salmonids, population estimates or index of stream health, and migrator studies	electrofishing, seine, fyke net, trap, screw trap, snorkel, telemetry	Capture, handle, and release	Year-round	ESU	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
31	Jeff Hagar (510) 236-7366	Hager Environmental Science	2002-03 Salmon and steelhead survey in the San Lorenzo River system	Population analyses of steelhead and salmon in the San Lorenzo River	Describe steelhead population trend analysis, resource management guidelines, habitat protection and restoration, and fish population recovery	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	May-Sept	San Lorenzo	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
32	Jeff Hagar (510) 236-7366	Hager Environmental Science	Steelhead population survey in the San Lorenzo River	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Use knowledge of steelhead population to better inform planning decisions regarding use of creek	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Year-round	San Lorenzo	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
33	Jeff Hagar (510) 236-7366	Hager Environmental Science	Cass de Fula Restoration Monitoring	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	June-Sept-Oct	Cass de Fula Creek	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
34	Jeff Hagar (510) 236-7366	Hager Environmental Science	Arroyo Leon Steelhead Habitat Restoration	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Define the relative contribution of impoundment-related steelhead and those reared in the more typical stream habitat	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Spring/Summer	Arroyo Leon	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
35	Jeff Hagar (510) 236-7366	Hager Environmental Science	Carmel River/Lagoon Breech Monitoring	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Monitor for presence and relative abundance of fish	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Oct-May	Carmel River	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
36	Jeff Dreier	Wetlands Research Associates, Inc.	Potential fish sampling projects in small tidal channels	fish sampling in shallow tidal channels in small tidal channels	Use of wetland channels in small tidal channels to restore and enhance fish habitat	Capture, handle, and release	Capture, handle, and release	Year-round	South San Francisco Bay	No	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Project Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Gear	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Fishes by CDFG	Central California Coast steelhead				South Central California Coast steelhead				Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon				Central Valley steelhead			
										adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile
44	Harry Vaughn (707) 943-3233	Eel River salmon restoration project	Monitor status of salmonids in the Eel River using a downstream migrant trap	Track population trends, spawning success, genetic population analysis, and gather on size of steelhead downstream smolt migration	Capture method includes live box modified pipe trap	capture, handle, and release	Spring	Eel River	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
45	Gregory Andrew (415) 945-1191	Aquatic Resources Monitoring Workplan for Lodi, Contra Costa, and Alameda Counties, California	Monitor salmonid abundance and habitat conditions	Conduct fish studies which provide information on population trends and indicate health of the aquatic environment	Capture methods include electrofishing	capture, handle, and release	Sep-Oct	Lagunitas Creek	No	0	0	3,000	100	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
46	Gary Fiesl, Barry Collins, Steve Downie, Steve Cannata, Cynthia LeDoux, Adam (707) 725-0722, (707) 725-1068, (707) 725-1070, (707) 725-0115, (707) 984-1346	North Coast Watershed Assessment Program	Habitat Inventory, 2) Biological Inventory, 3) Project Planning, 4) Project monitoring and evaluation, and 5) Long term monitoring and evaluation	Survey salmonid population and habitats	fish spawner survey	capture, handle, and release	year round	ESU wide	No	0	0	8,000	90	0	0	2,500	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
47	Gary D. Peterson (707) 829-3433	Mattole River juvenile salmonid monitoring	Monitor down-migration and relative abundance of fish using downstream migrant trapping	monitor down-migration and relative abundance of fish using downstream migrant trapping	capture methods include downstream migrant traps	capture, handle, and release	Apr-Jul	Mattole River, Bear Ck	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
48	Gary Semour (707) 944-5570	North Bay Restoration Program	Habitat classification and monitoring	Develop and implement a salmon and steelhead restoration program	spawning, redd, carcass surveys, electrofishing	capture/handle carcass die	year round	Sonoma Creek, Petaluma river, Salmon Creek (Sonoma Co.), Walker Creek, Redwood Creek, Lagunitas Creek, Pine Gulch Creek (Marin Co.), Napa River (Napa County)	No	0	0	1,200	12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
49	Erica Clough ecclough@dfg.ca.gov	South San Francisco Bay Restoration Program	Habitat classification and monitoring	Develop and implement a salmon and steelhead restoration program	spawning, redd, carcass surveys, electrofishing	capture/handle carcass die	year round	Phoebe Marsh, Walnut Creek, Alameda, San Leandro, Coyote, San Francisco, San Mateo, Cordilleras, and/or Pajaro	No	0	0	1,000	50	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project ID	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Gear	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Nexus	Modified by CDFG	So. Oregon/No. California Coastal Coho Salmon				Central California Coastal Coho Salmon				Willamette/Coos Bay Chinook Salmon				Northern California Steelhead			
												adult	non-adult	lethal	non-lethal	adult	non-adult	lethal	non-lethal	adult	non-adult	lethal	non-lethal	adult	non-adult	lethal	non-lethal
50	Douglas Richbieler (209) 795-7105	CDFG	Aquatic Resource Inventory and Monitoring, California State Parks	Monitoring status of fish or fish habitat	that State Parks can manage for their protection and enhancement	Capture methods include electrofishing, seining, and dip-netting	Capture, handle and release	as needed	as needed	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
51	Douglas Killam (530) 527-8692	CDFG	Spot Fish Restoration Act - Project 78: Sacramento River and Steelhead	Spawner abundance - winter-run, spring-run and fall-run upstream in Sycamore River and Feather River confluence.	Determine annual spawning abundance of winter-run, spring-run and fall-run upstream in Sycamore River and Feather River confluence.	Ladder counts, carcass, snorkel and aerial rodd surveys	Handle	as needed	Sacramento River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
52	Doug Albin (707) 964-7653	CDFG	Mendocino Northern Sonoma Coastal Watersheds Steelhead Restoration Proj.	Habitat classification and monitoring.	Identify critical habitat and riparian zones. Prioritize restoration sites.	spawning surveys, electrofishing	capture/handle	year round	streams entering the Pacific Ocean of the Mendocino-Humboldt county line and north of the Russian River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
53	Pedersen (530) 822-9607	water resources	Napa River and Sonoma Creek Watersheds	Steelhead growth will be measured under a series of potential management options	To help guide management strategies to promote recovery of steelhead within the Napa River and Sonoma Creek basins	Capture method includes pole seining and electrofishing. Fish will also be given unique tags.	Capture, handle, mark fish, and release	Year-round	Napa River and Sonoma Creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
54	Diane O'Jion (530) 665-9331	CDFG	Sacramento River Juvenile Salmon Emigration Monitoring at the Glenn-Colusa Irrigation District (GICD) Hamilton City Pumping Plant Fish Screen (HCPFP)	Life history information on emigrating juvenile chinook salmon in the Upper Sacramento R. specifically monitoring winter-run passing through HCPFP bypass channel. (A real time monitoring site.)	Obtain life history information on emigrating juvenile chinook salmon in the Upper Sacramento R. specifically monitoring winter-run passing through HCPFP bypass channel. (A real time monitoring site.)	Trap, handle, mark, release	Trap, handle, mark, release	Year-round	Upper Sacramento River	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
55	Dennis Blakeman (209) 655-2500	CDFG	Restoration Project Monitoring	Biological data to evaluate restoration project	Collect steelhead data during pre and post restoration activities	Flye sets, backpack electrofishing, angling, snorkeling, surveying rods/transits.	Handle	Mar-Aug	Mendocino-Tuolumne	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Description	Project Objective	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Nexus	Method	Central California Coast steelhead	South Central California Coast steelhead	Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon	Central Valley steelhead
50	Douglas Richbeler (209) 785-7105	Department of Parks and Recreation	Aquatic Resource Inventory and Monitoring, California State Parks	Monitoring status of fish that State Parks can manage for their protection and enhancement	monitor status of fish so that State Parks can manage for their protection and enhancement	Capture methods include electrofishing, seining, and dip-netting	as needed	as needed	No	No	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 40	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 40	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0
51	Douglas Kilian (530) 827-8892	CDFG	SPRINGS, SACRAMENTO RIVER AND SACRAMENTO STEELHEAD ASSESSMENT - Job 1, Sacramento River Adult Steelhead Counts and Spawning Stock Survey	Spawner abundance, spawning status, and steelhead counts in the Sacramento River and Feather R confluence.	Determine annual spawner abundance of steelhead in the Sacramento River and Feather R confluence.	Handle counts, electrofishing, dip-netting	May-Sep	meto	No	No	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0
52	Doug Albin (707) 964-7893	CDFG	Mendocino-Northern Sonoma Coastal Watersheds Steelhead Restoration Proj.	Habitat classification and monitoring.	History of fish habitat, species and steelhead restoration projects.	spawning surveys, electrofishing	year round	streams entering the Pacific Ocean south of the Mendocino-Humboldt county line and north of the Russian River	No	No	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0
53	Dirk Pederson (707) 822-9807	Stillwater Sciences	Napa River and Sonoma Creek watersheds steelhead limiting factors studies	Steelhead growth will be assessed under a series of potential management options	To help guide management strategies to promote recovery of steelhead within the Napa River and Sonoma Creek basins	Capture methods include pole seining and electrofishing. Fish will also be given a unique subcutaneous mark.		Napa River and Sonoma Creek	No	No	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 2,200	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0
54	Diane Coulon (530) 865-9331	CDFG	Sacramento River Juvenile Salmonid Emigration Monitoring at the Glenn-Colusa Irrigation District (GICID) Hamilton City Pumping Station (HCP)	Life history information on emigrating juvenile chinook salmon in the Upper Sacramento R. specifically monitoring winter-run passing through GICID bypass channel (HCP) monitoring site.	Obtain life history information on emigrating juvenile chinook salmon in the Upper Sacramento R. specifically monitoring winter-run passing through GICID bypass channel (HCP) monitoring site.	Rotary screw trap	Year-round	upper Sacramento River	No	No	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0
55	Dennis Blakeman (209) 853-2533	CDFG	Restoration Project Monitoring	Biological data to evaluate restoration project	Collect steelhead data during pre- and post-restoration activities	Fyke nets, beach seines, backpack electrofishing, angling, snorkeling, surveying rods/transects.	Mar-Aug	Mendocino, Tuolumne, Mokelumne	No	No	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0	adult lethal 0, non-lethal 0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Gear	Take Activity	Timing	River System	Federal Nexus	Modified by CDFG	So. Oregon/No. California Coasts		Central California Coast		California Coastal Chinook salmon		Northern California steelhead		
												adult	non-lethal	adult	non-lethal	adult	non-lethal	adult	non-lethal	adult
56	Dean Marston	CDFG	Adult Steelhead Monitoring Program	Life history and habitat use	Document presence, origin, migration timing, abundance, distribution, habitat utilization, environmental factors influencing adult steelhead in San Joaquin Basin	HOV and lift, backpack, fish take scale and fin samples, snorkel survey, weir's beach series, fish traps, may include drift boats, jet boats.	Jun-Apr	Stanislaus, Tuolumne, Merced, Main stem San Joaquin River	No	Yes		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
57	Dean Marston (959) 243-2200	CDFG	Juvenile Salmon Abundance Distribution Project	Population and habitat studies	Document presence, origin, migration, abundance, distribution, abundance of fall run Chinook salmon and steelhead rainbow trout within the San Joaquin River basin, and steelhead environmental variables.	Fyke nets, shiner, hook and scale samples, backpack series, backpacked electrofisher.	Mar	Stanislaus, Tuolumne, Merced, Main stem San Joaquin River	No	Yes		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
58	David Salisbury (408) 265-2607 ext 2713	Santa Clara County Water District	San Joaquin River Aquatic Resource Management Program	Monitoring distribution and relative abundance of steelhead	Monitoring distribution and relative abundance of steelhead	Capture methods include electrofishing, nets, traps, seines, Radio telemetry and PIT tags will be used.	Round	Guadalupe River, Coyote Creek and Stevens Creek	No			0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
59	David Fuller (707) 825-2315	Bureau of Land Management	BLM Arcata Field Office fish and water quality monitoring	Monitor for presence and abundance of fish and detect trends in water quality attributes by conducting periodic aquatic macroinvertebrate surveys	Monitor for abundance and presence of fish and water quality	Capture methods include electrofishing		Mattole River, South Fork Eel River, Van Duzen River, Eel River, and coastal drainages on the west side of the King Range National Conservation Area.	Yes	No		0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	110
60	Dale Gates (209) 853-9136	COFO	Ferry Barrier Impede fish passage to unsuitable habitat	Impede fish passage to unsuitable habitat	Block upstream migration of adult Chinook salmon on San Joaquin River above confluence of Merced River because lack of suitable spawning	Weir	Trap, handle, tag	Sept	San Joaquin River @ Merced R	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Gear	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	General Status	Mod/Used	Central Valley steelhead	Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon	South Central California steelhead	Coast	Central Valley steelhead	Central Valley steelhead
55	Dean Marston	CDFG	Adult Steelhead Monitoring Program	Life history and habitat use	Document presence, origin, migration timing, distribution, abundance, habitat utilization, environmental factors influencing adult steelhead in San Joaquin Basin	Hook and line, backpack electrofishing, snorkel, counting weirs, beam trawls, series fish traps, may include drift boats, jet boats.	Measure fish, take scale and fin samples, survey spawning habitats and redds.	Jun-Apr	Stanislaus, Tuolumne, Merced, Main stem San Joaquin River	No	Yes	adult	adult	adult	adult	adult
57	Dean Marston (559) 243-4017	CDFG	Juvenile Salmonid Abundance/Distribution Project	Population and habitat status	Document presence, distribution, abundance, habitat use and abundance of fall-run Chinook salmon and steelhead rainbow trout within the San Joaquin River basin, and environmental variables.	Fly/catch, hook and line, backpack electrofishing.	Measure fish, take scale and fin samples, survey spawning habitats and redds.	Mar-Jul	Stanislaus, Tuolumne, Merced, Main stem San Joaquin River	No	Yes	adult	adult	adult	adult	adult
58	David Salsbery (408) 285-2607 ext Valley Water District 2713	Santa Clara County Water District	Sanity Water Quality and Aquatic Invertebrate Management Program	Monitoring distribution and relative abundance of steelhead.	Monitoring distribution and relative abundance of steelhead.	Capture methods include electrofishing, nets, traps, telemetry and PIT tags will be used.	Capture, handle, tag, take tissues	year round	Guadalupe River, Coyote Creek, and Stevens Creek	No	Yes	adult	adult	adult	adult	adult
59	David Fuller (707) 825-2515	Bureau of Land Management	BLM Arcata Field Office fish and water quality monitoring	Monitor for presence and abundance of fish and macroinvertebrates in water quality attributes by conducting aquatic macroinvertebrate surveys	Monitor for abundance and presence of fish and water quality	Capture methods include electrofishing	Capture, handle and release	year round	Mattole River, South Fork Eel River, Duzan River, Eel River, and coastal drainages on the west side of the King Range National Conservation Area.	Yes	No	adult	adult	adult	adult	adult
60	Dale Gates (209) 853-9136	CDFG	Hills Ferry Barrier Operation	Impede fish passage to unsuitable habitat	Block upstream migration of adult Chinook salmon on San Joaquin River above confluence of Merced River because lack of suitable spawning habitat.	Weir	Tag	1	San Joaquin River	No	No	adult	adult	adult	adult	adult

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Gear	Take Activity	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Nexus	Central California Coast steelhead				South Central California Coast steelhead				Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon				Central Valley steelhead			
											adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile
68	Bill Snider, Rob Titus (916) 227-6336; (916) 227-6390	CDFG	Central Valley Juvenile Salmon and Steelhead Emigration Monitoring	Migration and population: 1,000 steelhead	Population from 100,000 steelhead, composition steelhead, and steelhead	Rotary screw trap, kodak trap, round trap, round trap, round trap	Trap, handle	Sept-Jul	Sacramento River (Balls Ferry, Knights Landing, American R., Dry Crk)	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
69	Bill Snider, Rob Titus (916) 227-6336; (916) 227-6390	CDFG	Dry Creek Steelhead Life History and Habitat Use Study	Life history and habitat use	Understand steelhead use of low-elevation tributaries by monitoring steelhead spawning, rearing, growth, and emigration associated with adult use and conditions in Dry Crk.	Snorkel, electrofishing	Handle	May-Aug	Dry Crk	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
70	Bill (707) 823-1001	CDFG	Dist. 4/5/6/7/8/9/10/11/12/13/14/15/16/17/18/19/20/21/22/23/24/25/26/27/28/29/30/31/32/33/34/35/36/37/38/39/40/41/42/43/44/45/46/47/48/49/50/51/52/53/54/55/56/57/58/59/60/61/62/63/64/65/66/67/68/69/70/71/72/73/74/75/76/77/78/79/80/81/82/83/84/85/86/87/88/89/90/91/92/93/94/95/96/97/98/99/100	Life history, steelhead surveys, and habitat use	Data mine distribution and habitat use of steelhead in fish species	Electrofishing, seine, dipnet	random sampling	random sampling	random sampling	No	0	0	410	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
71	Alicia Seasholtz, Terry Mills (916) 227-7539; (916) 227-7543	DWR	Feather River Fisheries Research - Spring Chinook 1stlemetry Study	Study of steelhead and Chinook 1stlemetry	Study of steelhead and Chinook 1stlemetry	Fyke trap, angling	Radio tags	Feb-Mar	Feather River	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
72	Gregory Fanslow (510) 846-8088 x 1119 (replaced 61)	Stillwater Sciences	Reconnaisance of steelhead populations in the Calaveras River	Reconnaisance of steelhead populations in the Calaveras River	Provide information on steelhead populations in the Calaveras River to restore self-sustaining fish populations.	Beach seine, electrofishing, dipnet, snorkel and survey, egg, marks, tissue sample	Capture, handle, tag, take tissues	Oct-Jun	Calaveras	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
73	William Mitchell (916) 737-3000	Jones & Stokes	2003 Yuba River Water Transfer Monitoring and Evaluation Program	Assess potential effects of water transfer operations on steelhead and fall and spring run Chinook salmon steelhead and their juveniles in the lower Yuba River	Assess potential effects of water transfer operations on steelhead and fall and spring run Chinook salmon steelhead and their juveniles in the lower Yuba River	Rotary screw traps	handle, mark	May-Oct	Lower Yuba River	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
74	Michael Marchetti (530) 898-5641	Cal Chico	Big Chico Creek Monitoring	Monitoring of non-salmonid fish in Big Chico Creek to determine if it is a non-salmonid habitat and alterations on fishes.	Monitoring of non-salmonid fish in Big Chico Creek to determine if it is a non-salmonid habitat and alterations on fishes.	electrofishing, hand seine	handle	Aug-Sept	Big Chico Creek	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Project Number	Point of Contact	Affiliation	Project Title	Project Description	Project Objective	Project Activity	Take	Time of Sampling	River System	Federal Nexus	Notified by CDFG	Central California Coast steelhead				South Central California Coast steelhead				Central Valley spring-run Chinook salmon				Central Valley steelhead				
												adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult	non-lethal	lethal	juvenile	adult
75	Tedd Scott (541) 750-7069 and Chris Moyer (541) 750-7017	USDA Forest Service and BLM	Aquatic and Riparian Effectiveness Monitoring Program for the Northwest Forest Plan	Biological and habitat monitoring of federal lands in Northwest Forest Plan.	Assess condition of watersheds	electrofishing	hands	Jun-Sept	Blue Sage Creek, E.F. Indian Creek, Indian Valley Creek, Horse Leap Creek, Fall Creek, Lower Scotts Creek, Lower Squaw Creek, South Tule Lake Sump, Stony Creek, Little Trinity River, Upper Blue Creek	Yes	Yes	0	0	0	250	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
76	Gregory Fanslow (510) 846-8098 x 119	Sillwater Sciences	Assessment of Factors Potentially Limiting Steelhead (Oncorhynchus mykiss) Population Abundance in Steven's Creek, El Dorado County, CA	Life history and steelhead population monitoring	Determine limiting factors to success of steelhead population. May include habitat survey, fish census and angler life history studies.	may include: beach seine, electrofishing, traps, snorkel and angler surveys, tags	hands, mark, survey	Year-round	Steven's Creek	No	No	0	0	0	350	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
77	Paul Ward (895-5015) McReynolds (530) 895-5111	CDFG	Butte and Big Chico Creeks Spring-Run Chinook Salmon Life History Investigation	Life history	Monitor and tag juvenile spring-run salmon and estimate adult escapement in Butte and Big Chico creeks	Rotary screw traps, snorkel, carcass survey	hands, mark, survey	Year-round	Butte and Big Chico creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	530
78	Philip Barrington (707) 825-4850	CDFG	2nd: Freshwater Creek juvenile salmonid abundance estimates	population estimates	Estimate population of juvenile salmonids	out migrant traps	hands	Year-round	Freshwater Creek	No	No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10